The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD

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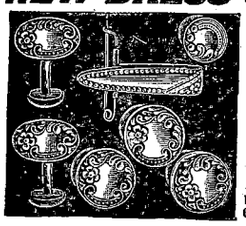

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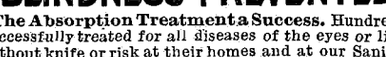

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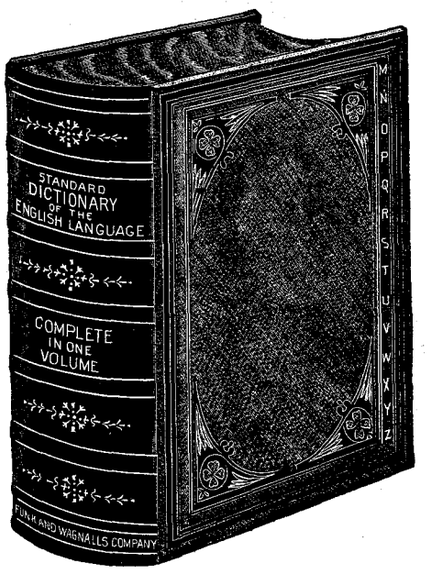

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The opinion of said court was delivered by District Judge Wheeler, and reads as follows:

"The question here is whether the respondent is a Chinese laborer, within the meaning of the registration and deportation acts of 1892 and 1893 (27 Stat., 25; 28 Stat., 7). According to what is shown here, he was and is a member of the trading firm of Lung Kee & Co., consisting of thirteen partners, at 24 Pell Street, New York, in which he has an interest of $1,000, and of whom nine, including the respondent, live at the store, and he does the housework for them, and in spare time packs goods for shipment. He is argued to be a laborer on account of these household services. ***In the Standard Dictionary the definition of 'laborer'*** excludes domestic service. These services for the household of partners seem to be essentially domestic in their nature, and not for the hire that is associated with the occupation of laborers as such. Order of deportation denied, and respondent discharged."

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

AMERICAN INTERPRETATIONS OF THE QUEEN'S JUBILEE.

THE spectacular celebration, June 20–26, of the sixtieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession to the English throne, was reported with extraordinary minuteness in many American journals. Cabled accounts covered the movements of many American visitors as well as the official part in the ceremonies played by the special embassy headed by Whitelaw Reid, bearing a personal letter of congratulation to the Queen from President McKinley. Editorial comment on the significance of the Jubilee to the world, to the British Empire, and to the United States is represented by the following quotations:

Unprecedented Personal Prestige.—"The estimate made of Victoria's personality is that it has been throughout a potent and triumphant fact in most of the great doings of her reign; incomparably more potent than that of any of her predecessors. This, it may well be believed, is entirely true. By a delightful paradox, the most constitutional of monarchs has been the most autocratic. The Queen who has most of all subordinated her will to that of her people has most of all impressed her will upon them and upon all the progress of their social arts. That is explained by the further analysis of her character and circumstances. She is seen to have been from the outset a true Englishwoman, the first really British sovereign the realm has had for many reigns; to have shown herself, in good faith and above suspicion, a consistent and progressive constitutional sovereign, and to have been in the highest and deepest sense of the term a model of true womanhood. When to these conditions we add her unusual intellectual powers and executive ability and her 'saving common sense,' the secret of her unprecedented personal prestige is made obvious."—*The Tribune* (*Rep.*), *New York*.

Virtue Justly Praised.—"It has been said, truly enough, that millions of good women have been equally true to their trusts as wives and mothers in humble homes all around the globe. But that does not subtract anything from the great value of her wholesome and well-ordered life. The exalted place to which she was called gave her unique opportunity and power for better or for worse. The pages of history afford terrible evidence of the vast mischief which monarchs of evil life have done by the vicious and corrupting example they have offered to their peoples. And if we can appreciate how much the court of a Charles II. or a George IV. did toward lowering the morals and manners of the whole community for which they served as a model, we can not doubt that the noble pattern of womanly character which Victoria has set before her own nation and the world has been of incalculable benefit. For this, then, she is justly praised."—*The Sun* (*Ind.*), *Baltimore*.

"Sixty Years of Himself."—"Johnny Bull is shouting hosannas, not over sixty years of a queen, but over sixty years of himself. He wants to demonstrate to himself and to all the world besides what a tremendous fellow he is. He wants to expand his chest and swell up his biceps and show how much he can lift. He wants to count his servants and look over the roll of his possessions and see that none of them have got away. He wants to show what he has been able to do in sixty years in the killing and civilizing of peoples all over the earth who had something he coveted, something that for a reason he felt quite justified in taking away from them. He is a remarkable fellow, this islander. His home is too small for him. The world itself is none too large.

"We don't think that Queen Victoria indulges in much self-deception about this Jubilee. She knows probably better than any one else that her principal business on the throne has been to do nothing and do it well. She knows that her own share in the extension of the British Empire has been very small. She knows that she has made a very creditable figurehead in some respects. She probably does not realize that there have been occasions when she could have done great service to humanity and failed to raise a finger to do it.

"As for the relationship of the United States to the Queen and the Jubilee, it can not be more than one of the courteous interest which politeness between nations requires. Neither Victoria nor her country have at any time put themselves out of the way a particle to help this country or the people of this country. We don't owe anything to them as a nation, and we don't wish to owe anything. They are going their own way, as they are amply able to do—and we are going our way, as we are at least equally able to do. They have done many things to be proud of, and some that they should not be proud of. In material advancement, in growth of riches, in enhancement of importance, the Britisher has accomplished enough to entitle him to a week or so of prodigious horn-blowing."—*The News* (*Pop.*), *Denver*.

Democracy Never Stronger.—"What substantial gain can there have been for monarchy in England when during these sixty years universal suffrage has been granted; when all government has come to be conducted substantially by a single popular legislative chamber, to which the ruling ministry is directly responsible; when an income tax—unconstitutional in this republic—has been imposed, and when to-day a strong tory government is enacting a socialistic law rendering compensation to workmen for accidents? In Australia, the purest in English blood of all the colonies, the advance toward social democracy has been much more extraordinary than in the motherland. And whether we approve or not much of the legislation of those splendid states, one of the most precious reforms in American politics, the secret Australian ballot, is due to their progressive instincts. . . .

"When we find experiments in radicalism, that would meet the most acrid opposition in republican United States, flourishing in the British Empire, without the slightest hindrance from the con-

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servative forces that huddle around a crown, it is impossible to say that true monarchical ideas have gained ground among the Queen's subjects during her memorable reign. Democracy was never stronger under the British flag than to-day, and nowhere else, not even in republican America, can it be found developed to so advanced a point as in some portions of that imperial realm. This triumph of democracy, while yet good-naturedly and even lovingly yielding homage to the living embodiment of an institution once bitterly democracy's foe, and now shorn of its power to stay democracy's grand, forward march—this is the significance and the wonder of the good Queen's Jubilee."—*The Republican (Ind.), Springfield, Mass.*

Personified Tradition of the People.—"Americans are unable to understand the personal affection in which Europeans hold their royal families, especially those continental families that sadly misdeserve it. With us the President, the governor, the mayor, the secretary, is a public representative, a public servant, and when he goes wrong we criticize him without stint. We like him, sometimes, when he is a sort of man who deserves to be liked, but unless there are personal reasons for more than this we can hardly be said to love him. Now and then a man arises among us who wins more than regard more than admiration, by the purity of his patriotism, the depth of his sympathies, the generosity of his statesmanship. Such a man was Lincoln; such was Washington. Those names will be not only honored, but will be spoken with affection. In England the Queen has the same place in the hearts of the people that an elder relative would have. Her correct life, her charities, her simplicity of manner, her wise heeding of counsel have in part created and in part intensified this; but there is in the very position of queen what best accounts for it. The Queen is the government; she is the personified tradition of her people; she is the symbol of their history; she is the successor of those real kings of the past that vanquished armies and extended the power and built up the wealth of their people. When even a bad monarch receives homage for his potency for good, how much the more may a really good one claim!"—*The Eagle (Ind. Dem.), Brooklyn.*

VICTORIA ALEXANDRINA, QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, AND EMPRESS OF INDIA.

A Gracious Moderator. — "Victoria's grandmother said, 'George, be King,' and George lost an empire. Louis Philippe in France also tried to govern as well as to reign, but that day in France had passed, or rather was passing, and he had to revise his notions of sovereignty. Had Queen Victoria throughout her reign actually governed as well as reigned, supposing such a thing possible, the acclaim of millions of her subjects in the great pageant of to-morrow would be far less enthusiastic and full of the element of good-will toward England's sovereign. Her hand at times—as, for instance, during the great Civil War in this country—has given the decisive turn to the course of events, but during the greater part of her long and illustrious reign Queen Victoria has had the great wisdom not to seek to govern so much as to guide, and she has known when to yield her own wishes and preferences to the inevitable. In this way she has remained to a great extent above the storms of partizan conflict in an atmosphere of mental serenity—a gracious presence, moderating the intensity of political strife and lifting the idea of patriotism and love of English institutions above the necessities and strenuousness incident to the real work of governing her people. That she has succeeded in this rôle and has made it possible for democratic institutions to grow slowly but surely under a royal *régime* may in itself be perhaps sufficient to give her rank among the greatest rulers of Europe. Certainly no other ruler of Europe has done so much to make another outbreak like that of the French Revolution impossible."—*The Record (Ind.), Chicago.*

British Trade and the Government.—"Mr. Gladstone's passionate outburst, 'Where can you put your finger on the map and say that there Austria did good?' might almost be reversed in the case of England. She has generally 'done good' wherever she has exercised her influence or exerted her power. Whatever we may say about the morality of some of her territorial exploits, we must concede that the Briton, with his pluck and enterprise, makes better use of these odd corners of the earth than naked blackamoors or yelling Pathans. Trade, trade, always trade, is the cry of the British subject, and his Government obligingly makes the gratification of his desire its chief political aim. It is a policy appropriate to a great sea power, a great policy, and, with exceptions, a wise one. It costs blood and treasure, and it crowds the slothful, unprogressive races 'off the earth.' But that is a necessary incident of the struggle for existence. There was published not long ago a list of the wars of Victoria's reign which is worth reproducing here:

Afghan war, 1830–40; first China war, 1841; Sikh war, 1845–46; Kafir, 1846; second war with China, second Afghan war, 1849; second Sikh war, 1848–49; Burmese war, 1850; second Kafir war, 1851–52; second Burmese war, 1852–53; Crimea, 1854; third war with China, 1856–58; Indian mutiny, 1857; Maori war, 1860–61; more war with China, 1860 and 1862; second Maori war, 1863–66; Ashanti war, 1864; war in Bhootan, 1864; Abyssinian war, 1867–68; war with Bazotees, 1868; third Maori war, 1868–69; war with Looshais, 1871; second Ashanti war, 1873–74; third Kafir war, 1877; Zulu war, 1878–79; third Afghan war, 1878–80; war in Basutoland, 1879–81; Transvaal war, 1879–81; Egyptian war, 1882; Sudan, 1884–85–88; third Burmese war, 1885–92; Zanzibar, 1890; India, 1890; Matabele wars, 1894 and 1896; Chitral campaign, 1895; third Ashanti campaign, 1896; second Sudan campaign, 1896.

"With the exception of the Crimean war, these wars were all with races not of the English color. Most of them were to protect or extend her territorial domain, and all of them at bottom were fought in the interests of British trade."—*The Times (Ind.), New York.*

Dynastic Influence.—"Outside of the Catholic dynasties of Austria-Hungary, Italy, Spain, and the French Bourbons, there is no royal house in Europe which is not bound by ties of close relationship to Queen Victoria. The Emperor of Germany is her grandson, the Empress of Russia her granddaughter, one of her daughters was Empress of Germany, and one of her grandsons is Grand Duke of Hesse. The Queen's granddaughters will reign over Rumania and Greece; the King of Belgium and the King of Portugal are her cousins, and among all the German royalties, great and little, there is hardly one who is not a blood relation. Thus, what may be called the dynastic influence of Queen Victoria would form a very important chapter in the history of our time. There is every reason to believe that it has been exerted

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on the side of freedom and of justice, and one need go but a short distance back in the history of international relations in Europe to appreciate how powerful a factor in their peaceful adjustment has been the exercise of the moral pressure which she is able to apply as the head of a great family of royalties. On the whole, the length of Queen Victoria's reign is not the most distinctly unique thing about it, nor are the material triumphs with which it has been accompanied the characteristics which will most commend it to the lasting admiration of mankind."—*The Journal of Commerce* (*Ind.*), *New York.*

More than National Significance.—"Rome in her mightiest days was not the capital of so wide an empire as that of which London is the metropolis to-day. And the glory of London is the greater because the most important of these far-off members of the empire are held by ties of kinship, in language, laws, and institutions, and not by force of arms.

"It costs Americans nothing to acknowledge this, for in the contrasted colonial policy of the period of Victoria and of that of George III., we can recognize something of our own national contribution to the political progress of the world and to the expanding influence of the English-speaking race. With Asian conquest and African aggression we have neither sympathy nor concern, but the growth of English commonwealths more or less assimilated to our own is not the less interesting and inspiriting to us because they still hold to ties that we found necessary to break, and in doing so made it possible for them to retain them.

"Imperial government bears lightly now on the English colonies, whose ministers are gathered to testify their allegiance to the Crown. The conditions that compelled our separation scarcely exist for them, and we can thus congratulate them on their freedom without excepting to the sentiment that still attaches them to their old home. To those who believe in the great destiny of the English-speaking race, that already dominates so large a part of the world, this demonstration in London has more than only national significance, and the official parade of military imperialism, however picturesque, is but theatrical and trivial as compared with the unofficial exhibition of the world-wide influence that has gone out from the 'island realm.'"—*The Times* (*Ind.*), *Philadelphia.*

Irish Take No Part in the Jubilee.—"No Irishman could have to do with the business in the remotest way, and retain a shred of reputation as a lover of his country; Englishmen, even the starving workers, have at least a national legislature, a home government. They are ruled by countrymen of their own, and if the rule is bad, they have themselves to blame, since they have in their own hands the power to make it good. Not so with Irishmen. What have they in this matter of government to rejoice about? What power have they to set right anything that is wrong—and nearly everything is wrong—in public affairs in their country? No power whatever. Three fourths of the people of Ireland have as little to do in the controlling or directing of government in their country as the red Indians of the United States have in influencing the policy of the Administration at Washington. . . .

"The celebration is organized and carried out as a tribute to Queen Victoria and to the British Empire. Why, then, should Ireland have anything to do with it? To Queen Victoria Ireland owes nothing. It has never got from her either good deed or good word. As for the empire and its directors, Ireland owes them nothing but deadly hatred and hostility. If those who built up the British Empire had the power, they would have wiped the Celtic race out of existence. To this diabolical end their policy in Ireland has ever been directed. . . . Many of those Englishmen who are taking part in the celebration are friendly to Ireland, and we are quite sure that, while as Englishmen they no doubt very naturally and properly celebrate the occasion, they feel and recognize that the Irish parliamentary party and the Irish people are also doing the proper and patriotic thing in refusing to participate in rejoicing over a reign under and during which their country has been oppressed, plundered, and impoverished."—*The Irish World, New York.*

Concerning Illusions.—"Outside of Great Britain there are very few people who cherish any illusions in regard to Queen Victoria. She is certainly the best of a very bad lot. She is a model of the domestic virtues in many respects, but just a bit shrewish, as one in her station could scarcely help being, and an unbending stickler for all the honors and profits that belong to her station. She was a loyal wife and a good mother, altho it can hardly be said that her children have done credit to her training. But it was her exceeding good fortune to succeed to the throne of England at the time of the great awakening of Great Britain and the world to an era of achievement that has never been equalled. The germ of nearly all the epoch-making changes that have marked the past sixty years had been sown before, but it was in 'the Victorian era' that the harvest has been gathered, and the name of the British Queen will be indelibly associated with them. It must be conceded that she has retarded and obstructed the march of triumphant democracy in Europe. Even English loyalty and conservatism could not have stood the continuous strain of many sovereigns like George III., George IV., and William IV. Radicalism, Chartism, and other diluted forms of republicanism were spreading rapidly in England when Victoria ascended the throne, and if she had followed in the footsteps of her predecessors, the kingdom would have long ago disappeared. Queen Victoria has put new life into the traditions of the English monarchy, and has insured its continuance for years to come."—*The Times* (*Rep.*), *Brooklyn.*

A FRENCH VIEW OF AMERICAN WORKMEN.

IN an article published in the *Revue Bleue*, M. Emile Levasseur, of the National Institute of France, gives a summary of his views on the condition of American workmen, as contained in his book, "The American Workers." The three points to which he particularly refers are: the wages which the workers receive; the machinery which they operate; and their standard of living.

In regard to the question of wages M. Levasseur explains that there are great differences in the earnings of the workers in the various sections of the United States, and that it is very difficult to form an estimate of the average wages paid to the workmen engaged in the manufacturing industries. On the whole he concludes that the wage-rate is very high as compared with that of France, and even of England, where wages are higher than in any European country. From his personal investigations made during his visits to this country, and from the statistics furnished by the census, the Aldrich report to the Senate, and reports of bureaus of labor statistics, he estimates that the average wages of the workmen in the United States are from $1.75 to $2 per day.

Discussing the causes of this higher wage-rate M. Levasseur disputes the claim of the trades-unions that they should be credited with securing the increase in wages. He says:

"The heads of the labor organizations pretend that the increase of 50 per cent. in wages during the last thirty years is due to the pressure which they have been able to bring to bear on employers by means of strikes. It is easy to show that these organizations are not the sole, nor even the principal, cause of the advance in wages, since the wages of agricultural laborers, who are not organized, have increased nearly in the same proportion as those of most of the workers in other industries; while the wages of domestic servants, both in America and in France, have risen more in proportion than those of the organized workers. I do not mean to assert that the trades-unions have no influence in the United States. On the contrary, they are very strong in numbers and have taken an active part in the efforts of the workers to secure higher wages, shorter hours, etc.

"A second theory which is held by some of the workers is that their wages are regulated by the cost of living, that is to say, that the worker must receive enough wages to maintain his household in the manner to which he is accustomed. At first sight this proposition seems reasonable, but it is, nevertheless, unsound. It is a reversion of the real facts of life which, if followed, would involve grave consequences. For it practically says to the workers: 'Do not hesitate to increase your expenses, raise the cost of your living, and it will then be necessary for your employers to increase your wages.' The same argument is used in favor of the eight-hour system: 'The worker will have more leisure, and therefore more inducements to incur larger expenses; thus his

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method of living will become more costly, and, as his labor will not be in less demand, the employer will be forced to pay higher wages.' To reason in this way is to mistake the effect for the cause. In reality the workers, like all other classes of society, adjust their mode of living to their average income. If the American worker lives better than the majority of the same class in Europe, it is simply because he receives higher wages. No doubt, any class which has had its habits of living fixed for a long time will not voluntarily give them up for a lower scale of comfort. The worker will defend himself as far as possible against a reduction of wages, and in case of an attempt being made to cut down his pay, his standard of living will be a point below which he will not willingly work. But the cost of living, I repeat, is not the efficient cause of high wages in America, or any other country, and it can only become a regulating cause in the cases where wages are reduced to the minimum necessary to sustain life, and this minimum itself is far from being a fixed quantity."

The enormous development of machinery in the United States is the subject of M. Levasseur's enthusiastic admiration. In no part of the world, he says, is there more perfect machinery than in the mills and factories of the United States, nor can there be found anywhere men better skilled in managing the delicate or ponderous mechanism which performs so large a part of the work in all important industries. He was surprised to find that in the cotton-mills of New England one operative could attend to eight looms, and his statement of that fact on his return to France was received with marked incredulity. He adds:

"This progress in mechanics is by no means peculiar to the United States, but it has been more rapid there than elsewhere, because the Americans have a genius for invention combined with boldness in undertaking new enterprises; because their population has increased from four millions a century ago to more than seventy millions, while the wealth of the country has increased faster than the population, and because this great number of people furnishes an immense market for all kinds of goods, a market in which the per-capita consumption is much larger than in European countries."

The standard of living of American workers, as measured by the degree of comfort in which they live and the amount of goods which they consume, is stated by M. Levasseur to be higher than in any other part of the world, with the possible exception of some of the Australian colonies. Of the cost of living he says:

"I have made a careful comparison of the retail prices in France and the United States, particularly in New York and Paris, of the principal articles of food, clothing, and various other kinds of merchandise. By this means I have ascertained that, with the exception of luxuries, which are generally, like personal services, high in America, the average price of goods consumed by the working-classes is but very little higher in America than in France, while provisions are slightly lower. Here, among other testimony, is one fact. Returning to France on *La Champagne*, I asked the steward to give me the prices which he paid for provisions in New York and in Havre. He prepared for me a list of thirteen articles, with the price of each in the two cities, which showed an average cost of 17 francs in New York and 23 francs in Havre. The conditions of purchase were equal, since in both cases the same person had bought the articles in the same quantities. It would be surprising if the conditions were otherwise, for the United States exports to Europe large quantities of grain, meat, etc.

"To estimate the cost of clothing in the two countries it is necessary to consider the styles commonly worn by the workers, which I found to cost, from the hat to the boots, nearly the same in Paris and New York.

"Rent is one item of expense which is nearly always heavier for the workers of America than for those of France. But the conditions are by no means the same. The American requires much better accommodation than contents the French worker. I have visited a large number of workmen's homes and lodgings in the United States and believe that on an average the American family occupies four rooms, a notably larger number than the average French household. I may add that the American dwelling is generally much better furnished and much more comfortable. In American cities, as in European, there are poor quarters, and in New York, especially, there is lamentable overcrowding in tenements, but this is the exception."

As a proof of the superior standard of living among American workmen statistics are quoted from thirty reports on the purposes for which wages are expended, which show that in only four cases was more than 50 per cent. of wages devoted to the purchase of food, the proportion falling in some instances to 35 per cent. As it is generally conceded that the percentage spent for food is largest where wages are lowest, reaching, for instance, in Saxony 62 per cent., this indicates a large consumption of other articles and a correspondingly high degree of comfort.

Returning to the question of the causes of high wages in America M. Levasseur gives his own opinions as follows:

"Wages are not, as many seem to think, something arbitrary, to be fixed according to the needs of the workers or the demands of trades-unions. They depend on several causes, of which the principal is the total amount of wealth previously existing or produced at any given time by labor, and the average quantity of wealth produced by the individual worker. The wealth produced is divided between the three factors of production: capital, the managers of industry, and the workers. There is always a question as to the rate in which this distribution shall be made, particularly as to the respective shares of the managers and their employees, but the wages can in no case, under penalty of ruin for the industry, equal the total value of the product. We must admit, therefore, that the productivity of labor is one of the principal causes which regulate wages.

"Now, in the first place, the American worker is equipped with the machinery which can make his labor most productive, and employers are always disposed to perfect this machinery, since, tho paying higher wages, they realize larger profits than from handwork. In the second place, the workers are accustomed to work very rapidly, and their democratic and individualistic education gives them an energy which is a characteristic of the American workman.

"And, finally, there is a constant demand in America for a very large production of wealth to satisfy the needs of a population of more than 70,000,000, which consumes each year an enormous quantity of goods of all kinds."

"THE SOCIAL DEMOCRACY OF AMERICA."

AS a result of a June convention held in Chicago, the American Railway Union, under the leadership of Eugene V. Debs, has merged itself into a new organization in combination with the "Brotherhood of the Cooperative Commonwealth." The combined organization assumes the name of "The Social Democracy of America." Mr. Debs, who has been chosen head organizer of the new movement, is considered the chief figure in it by the daily press, which is nearly as unanimous in criticism of his proposed plan of cooperative colonization of the unemployed as it was in condemnation of his leadership in the railway strike in 1894.

Mr. Debs's formal address to the Chicago convention pleaded the necessity and feasibility of gradually establishing colonies for the unemployed on the cooperative plan, in sufficient number to eventually control the government of a single State, and thus demonstrate the possibility of inaugurating a cooperative commonwealth throughout the United States. Wider publicity, however, has been given to subsequent utterances by Mr. Debs. In one speech he said:

"We are going to build a community on carefully prepared plans, as any thoughtful man would erect a building. We shall have the funds, because contributions and pledges are already flowing in. And when we can feed our people we shall start with the establishment of cooperative industries. Shoe factories, clothing factories, one after another, will be built, and the material wants of the increasing community fulfilled. Then the ballot.

"I do not know whether this great question can be settled

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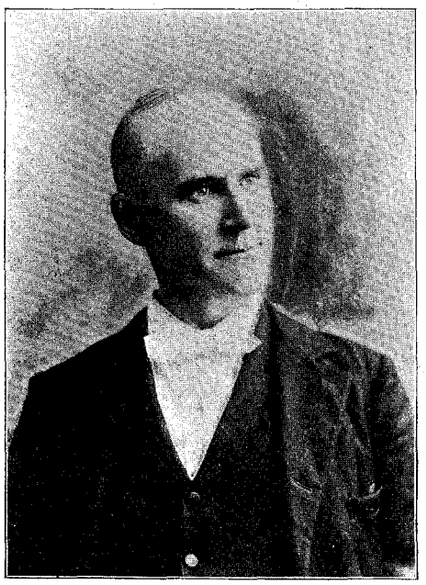
peaceably. From the bottom of my heart I hope it can. But if it can't be, then I am one of those who believe in getting ready to solve it otherwise. It has been said that should we successfully launch the cooperative commonwealth the money power would invoke the Supreme Court and the federal powers to crush us. We shall stay within our constitutional rights and hire three good lawyers to tell us what they are. Then, if the Supreme Court says stop, we shall do so, but it would give Socialism a greater impetus. And if, in defiance of the Federal Constitution, they send Federal troops to suppress us in the exercise of our constitutional rights, they will be kept busy in their march across the country, and when they reach the state line they will find 300,000 patriots ready to receive them.



EUGENE V. DEBS.

"We do not say we will elect a President in 1900, altho it would not surprise me if we did. But we will be in the field with a new party in that year, and it will have candidates in every State and county and town, and they will poll votes that will surprise the natives. The cooperative commonwealth is coming."

Mr. Debs also expressed the opinion that free silver would not be the issue in 1900 that it was in 1896,—that the greater issue of Socialism will absorb it.

The demands for immediate relief adopted by the social democracy are as follows:

1. The public ownership of all industries controlled by monopolies, trusts, and combines.
2. The public ownership of all railroads, telegraph, telephones, all means of transportation, communication, water-works, gas, electric plants, and all other utilities.
3. The public ownership of all gold, silver, copper, lead, coal, iron, and all other mines; also all oil and gas wells.
4. Reduction of the hours of labor in proportion to the progress of production.
5. The undertaking of public works and improvements for the employment of the unemployed, the public credit to be utilized for that purpose.
6. All useful inventions to be free to all, the inventor to be remunerated by the public.
7. The establishment of postal-savings banks.
8. The adoption of the initiative and the referendum, the imperative mandate, and proportional representation.

The committee on declaration of principles formulated an address criticizing the present capitalistic industrial system, reading, in part, as follows:

"We hold that all men are born free and are endowed with certain natural and inalienable rights, among which are life, the means of life, liberty, industrial freedom, and the realization of happiness. In the light of experience we find that while all citizens are equal in theory they are not in fact. While all citizens have the same rights politically, this political equality is useless under the present system of economic inequality, which is essentially destructive of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. In spite of our political equality, labor is robbed of the wealth it produces. By the development of our system it is now denied the means of self-employment, and by enforced idleness, through lack of employment, is even deprived of the necessaries of life. To the obvious fact that our despotic system of economics is directly opposite to our democratic system of politics can be plainly traced the existence of a class that corrupts the Government, alienates public property, public franchises, and public functions, and holds the mightiest of nations in abject dependence.

"Human power and natural forces are wasted by this system which makes 'profit' the only object in business. Ignorance and misery, with all concomitant evils, are perpetuated by this system, which makes human labor a ware to be bought in the open market and places no real value on human life.

"Science and invention are diverted from their humane purposes and made instruments for the enslavement of men and the starvation of children.

"We therefore hold that in the natural course of social evolution this system, through the destructive action of its failures and crises on the one hand and the constructive tendencies of its trusts and other capitalistic combinations on the other, will annihilate the middle class—the basis on which this system rests—and thereby work out its own downfall.

"We therefore call upon all citizens to unite under the banner of the Social Democracy of America, so that we may be able to conquer capitalism by making use of our political liberty and by taking possession of the public power so that we may put an end to the present barbarous struggle by the abolition of capitalism, by the restoration of land, and of all the means of production, transportation, and distribution to the people of the collective body, and the substitution of the cooperative commonwealth for the present state of planless production, industrial war, and social disorder. A commonwealth which, altho it will not make all men equal physically or mentally, will give to every worker the free exercise and full benefit of his faculties, multiplied by all the modern factors of civilization, and ultimately inaugurate the universal brotherhood of man."

The plan of the movement contemplates first the organization of branches of the order in cities and towns. Small assessments from these lodges and voluntary contributions are expected to furnish the means of sending out selected pioneers for the first colony in a State yet to be chosen. From those enrolled, successive colonists are to be sent out under direction of a board elected at Chicago and consisting of Debs and other American Railway Union leaders. The most prominent associates of Mr. Debs in the convention were Rev. Myron Reed, of Denver, president of the Brotherhood of the Cooperative Commonwealth; Prof. Frank Parsons, lecturer of the Boston University; and Walter Thomas Mills, of Chicago.

Not Satisfied with Cooperation.—"Altogether, apart from the enormous difficulties in the way, Mr. Debs and his associates are not the men to conduct a gigantic industrial enterprise. Even a cooperative store or shop on a modest scale would fail in their hands. How can any confidence be placed in men who denounce all trades-unionism as a failure and who deliberately dissolve a practical organization in order to enter upon a wild and futile scheme of reconstructing our entire political and economic system? If they had sense and fitness for constructive work they would perceive that not only is there no antagonism between trades-unionism and cooperation, but that the former is essential to the latter. It is out of and through strong, powerful, and practical organizations that cooperative labor societies must be formed, and cooperation must be simply an incidental, tho important, part of the work of labor organizations.

"Mr. Debs is not satisfied with cooperation. He wants a socialistic state, and his plan comprehends the 'stealing' of a state government. This feature serves only to accentuate the silliness of the entire movement. Let workmen of common sense beware of this Quixotic crusade and keep aloof."—*The Evening Post (Ind.), Chicago.*

Trades-Unionism and Socialism.—"It is not likely that Mr. Debs will be able to carry his scheme much beyond the paper stage. If so, he will not do much harm, and the inauguration of the new scheme will mean little more than his disappearance as a labor leader. And that is what it ought to mean. In principle, there are few things more opposed than trades-unionism and socialism. The former is entirely at home in democratic atmosphere. It is based on the voluntary cooperation of individuals having a common selfish purpose in view, and who improve the state of society by improving their own condition. They need to be restrained sometimes, just as all selfish forces need to be restrained, but they work along the lines of the laws which have made our present economic civilization possible.

The socialist idea is entirely different. First of all, it is philanthropic. Its first care is to wipe out the difference between strength and weakness, ability and inability, thus removing all rewards for unusual exertion or unusual capacity, and putting men on a dead level. We repeat that Mr. Debs's achievement in

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converting a body of trade-unionists into socialists, ready to give their time and means to the carrying out of a socialist experiment on a large scale, is a remarkable one. We are obliged to think they have given a merely formal assent to his plans.

"No more cruel thing could be done than to gather together thousands of the unemployed in a single place for such a purpose as Mr. Debs has announced. They would suffer much. Probably some of them would starve. And they would find it impossible to vote people out of possession of their property. Their majority would amount to nothing in such a case. Territory is taken possession of by invaders only by force of arms."—*The Times-Union (Dem.), Jacksonville, Fla.*

Religious Incentive Lacking.—"Debs has generally been regarded as a level-headed man. He has never been considered a dreamer. What he proposes seems so impossible of fulfilment; so many movements along similar lines have failed, that it would not be surprising if his sincerity should be called in question.

"He is accustomed to point to the success of the Mormons in Utah as a precedent and suggests that what they did can be done again. But, apparently, he overlooks the incentive which impelled the Mormons to their course—the incentive of religious fervor. In all ages people have done deeds, made sacrifices in the name of religion which no other consideration would have prompted. The Mormon laymen were actuated by no motives of a larger liberty or desire to better their material condition. They simply followed the lead of a priesthood in which they had implicit faith, unquestioningly and with blind obedience. Never, perhaps, was there greater tyranny than that practised by the heads of the church of the Latter-Day Saints. The followers of the Mormon leaders did not even possess the kind of religious enthusiasm which prompted the Pilgrim Fathers to seek the forbidding shores of Massachusetts. Their minds and hearts were in no sense in what they did. The leaders were actuated by a desire to perpetuate their power over their followers, and the followers were moved by a feeling that they were obeying the will of God and no sacrifice could be too great in such a service.

"The Debs movement will lack this important element of success. When members of the organization become dissatisfied, which they are reasonably certain to do, they can leave, and the danger of a break-up will therefore be ever present and an element of weakness. But the experiment will be no loss to the country and a valuable lesson may be learned from it after all."—*The State Journal (Rep.), Topeka, Kans.*

Not to be Sneered At.—"There is no good reason whatever why there should be any sneering at an honest effort of this kind, and we have seen some sneering in papers that ought to know better. Mr. Debs is acting in good faith. He has been brought face to face with the sufferings of the unemployed poor in every part of the nation. He is a thinker. His sympathies are intense. He feels for those he wishes to help. He has evolved this plan and he intends that it shall have a fair test. If through it he can alleviate the condition of thousands or tens of thousands of families that are now struggling against various forms of industrial oppression, or are not given even an opportunity to struggle because of denial of employment, he will have achieved a work of mercy, a noble deed that will place his name among those of the men who have done good for their fellows. In the crowded cities, in the coal-camps, in the factories, wherever the blight of the gold standard is most cruelly felt there are throngs praying for relief and it is in their behalf that Debs is proceeding.

"To predict the complete success of the undertaking is another thing. . . .

"Whatever may be the ultimate outcome of the scheme, and especially of the novel political features embraced in it, let us hope that it will better the lot of many who are being crushed between the upper and nether millstones in the battle for existence. There is plenty of good land in the West where the colony can at least raise enough to feed itself and clothe itself and provide itself with some comforts. At the worst the colonists can live; at the best they will have whatever of profit is to be made from their own labor. There was much socialism in the methods of the early settlers on this continent. They helped one another. To this day when the neighbors gather for a barn-raising or a husking-bee they are practising socialism to some extent. The Debs colonists will necessarily have to return to primitive ways of living, different from those that obtain in the artificial life of cities. They will be closer to nature. Their great stumbling-blocks will be the avarice and ambition of individuals. Perhaps the personality of Debs will be a restraining influence sufficiently strong to hold these in check for a long period. Perhaps he will grow into a great national figure."—*The News (Pop.), Denver.*

No Danger from Troops.—"There is no likelihood that federal troops will be used, unconstitutionally or otherwise, to interfere with a cooperative commonwealth, and talk of civil war is distasteful to Americans. The difficulties that will confront Mr. Debs are not of a military nature, but before he has disposed of them he may wish that they were nothing worse. They will come from within his community, not from without. If he can so organize the 300,000 patriots upon whom he counts for defense as to enable them to work together in harmony, he will have nothing to fear from federal troops. Let him set the example of a successful cooperative commonwealth, and every State in the Union will hasten to profit by it, with the millionaires in the lead. But Kaweah, Altruria, and Topolobampo were not suppressed by troops."—*The Journal (Dem.), New York.*

Competition as a Stimulus.—"Debs and other half-baked thinkers, which is to say dreamers, in this country want to begin on the basis which has been disproved by all the progressive peoples of the world. There is nothing that can be substituted for self-reliance. While competition kills many, it is still not only the life of trade, but it is the hard training that makes successful men. If we could remove necessity from the lots of all men, we might have an amiable, pretty well-fed race of beings, but great achieving qualities would be utterly lacking in such a people. No one can study history and fail to come to the conclusion that while socialism may relieve some men of the anxiety which attends the earning of a livelihood; it would also remove the greatest human stimulus, the stimulus which has called into existence the really highest qualities of man. But in spite of these conclusions we are still willing to see Mr. Debs and the other blind men lead their colony into the wilds of the West, for we are persuaded we can spare 5,000 men to demonstrate once over again the futility of socialism."—*The State Register (Rep.), Des Moines, Iowa.*

"The people of this country have had some experience with men of the stamp of Mr. Debs. To be sure they did not veil their designs with the mystical and philanthropic language that he uses. But they were possessed, after all, with the same idea. They pursued substantially the same plan of operations. But they were not known as Social Democrats; they were called carpet-baggers; and the States that they honored with their presence have hardly yet recovered from their attempts 'to inaugurate the universal brotherhood of man.' We are confident, therefore, that the people of no State that recalls the experience of the Southern people after the war will care to welcome Mr. Debs and his band of philanthropists."—*The Herald (Dem.), Rochester.*

"As a temporary mitigation of the hardships of the unemployed the Debs colony may be a success, but that it can have any permanent existence on the lines promulgated by its dreamy propagandists is not believed by any one who is familiar with our social conditions."—*The Times-Herald (Ind.), Chicago.*

"Colonization upon the land promises to relieve the overcrowded cities of their surplus of working-people, and to give each one something to do. But the normal man is a gregarious, not a solitary animal. In order to mingle with his fellows in the crowded cities he is willing to endure the less wholesome atmosphere, willing to endure periods of enforced idleness and keen suffering, willing to surrender most of his independence. A certain portion of them will steal and defraud one another before they will face the solitudes of rural life. Their personal interests tend to scatter them, but the pleasures of society draw them together, altho in close communities they tend to poison each other even when the utmost precautions are taken to preserve sanitary conditions. If the visionary but short-sighted projector succeeds in any measure, his enterprise will collapse just as that community which set out from Detroit last fall went to pieces in the wilds of North Carolina."—*The Tribune (Sil. Rep.), Detroit, Mich.*

"The Debs commonwealth marching to work in the State of Washington is a more hopeful spectacle than the Coxey commonwealth marching to the other Washington to overawe Congress

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into crank financial legislation."—*The Plain Dealer* (*Dem.*) *Cleveland, Ohio.*

"Something would possibly be contributed by the employed workingmen in the large cities in aid of a movement which promises to lessen the competition for work; and more could in all probability be had from the generous and able if it were felt that there was a chance for really benefiting the participants and making them, within a reasonable time, self-supporting. But all that could possibly be raised in these ways would be utterly insufficient to maintain such a movement as Debs has projected."—*The Free Press* (*Nat. Dem.*), *Detroit.*

"There must be a lot of work accomplished before the working-people of this land are sufficiently educated in the advantages of looking to the mutual welfare to be able to cooperate successfully in business. Yet no other course offers any brightness in the prospect before them."—*The Deseret Evening News* (*Ind.*), *Salt Lake City, Utah.*

"The wrecks of cooperative colonies are strewn along the pathway of civilization in such numbers as should admonish Mr. Debs and his associates that in order to achieve success their experiment must possess elements of strength and vitality unknown to any of their predecessors. . . . *The Post* is decidedly disinclined to join in the concert of ridicule that is being hurled at Debs and his co-workers in this scheme. They appear to be acting from proper motives and are violating no law."—*The Post* (*Ind.*), *Washington.*

"No convict Debs can become the founder of a new commonwealth. The law of the land would embrace in its protecting grasp even the distressed fragments of any structure that those who defy its impartial administrations might attempt to rear."—*The Mail and Express* (*Rep.*), *New York.*

"Debs is a man of great ability and unbounded popularity with the masses in Chicago and other large cities; and the advocates of the existing social order will find him a powerful, unscrupulous, and dangerous opponent."—*The News* (*Ind.*), *Des Moines, Iowa.*

"As for Debs's object in devoting himself to this new plan for helping his fellow sufferers, that is plain enough. He says, frankly, 'Labor strikes are useless. I have had experience enough to know that.' Mr. Debs needs a new job. That flat gold stud will not continue to glint on the snowy bosom of his shirt unless he finds one."—*The Times* (*Ind.*), *New York.*

"The more capable would inevitably come to the front and the less fortunate would find themselves distanced and compelled to go out and form another cooperative community if they wished to obtain their alleged rights. But the world is wide and there is plenty of room to test Mr. Debs's scheme if he is so disposed."—*The Press* (*Rep.*), *Philadelphia.*

"If Mr. Debs's commonwealth survives the stage of its preliminary organization and actually finds lodgment in the State of Washington it must quickly dissolve by the action of the explosive elements of which it is composed. The founder of the professed commonwealth has been punished as a law-breaker, and he is the last person in the world to ask his followers to respect the authority, loose as it may be, of the cooperative State which he is pretending to set up. Debs's Utopia is pure midsummer folly."—*The Ledger* (*Ind. Rep.*), *Philadelphia.*

"Mr. Debs's proposed industrial Utopia ought not to be too severely criticized. The experiment will be perfectly harmless and much less troublesome and expensive than reform along the line of Mr. Debs's former methods. In Chicago there is a general readiness to give him full scope in his new field of effort."—*The Republican* (*Ind.*), *Springfield.*

"The old story of Eden may be a myth, but there is this much truth in it, namely, that there can be no paradise so long as human nature, as it has existed from the foundation of the world, is an active and aggressive force. Debs will find the same elements in his so-called ideal community that he finds in the industrial world he affects so much to despise. The only way that he or any other person can establish an ideal community is to people it with ideal men and women. Where are they to be found?"—*The Republican* (*Rep.*), *Cedar Rapids, Iowa.*

"The strides toward the cooperative commonwealth lie alone along the political path, trod by the compact working-class, with its eyes set upon the White House and the Capitol at Washington, and its mind made up to overthrow the whole capitalist class and return to the people the goods that have been stolen from them. All else is jumping from the frying-pan into the fire, and from the fire back into the frying-pan."—*The People* (*Socialist-Labor*), *New York.*

HAWAIIAN TREATY
PRESS
A COMPLICATION.
THE PRESS — PHILADELPHIA
HAWAII
UNCLE SAM—BY JINGO! I'M BEGINNING TO RESEMBLE JOHN BULL SINCE I GOT THAT NEW MIRROR.
THE DISPATCH—PITTSBURG
HAWAII
COME OVER INTO THE LYNCHING BELT.
THE DAILY POST — HOUSTON, TEXAS
Is Johnny Bull Jealous?
THE POST - CINCINNATI.

CARTOONISTS ON ANNEXATION OF HAWAII.

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REFERENDUM AND THE DECLINE OF LEGISLATURES.

HAVE we, in our constitutional conventions, the most available means pointed out of securing remedies for legislative evils that prevail in the State? An affirmative answer to this question concludes a scholarly study of "The Decline of Legislatures," in other countries as well as our own, in *The Atlantic Monthly* for July. "Democracy really means a profound belief in the wisdom as well as the power of the majority, not on certain occasions, but at whatever time it is consulted," writes E. L. Godkin. Again, "the democratic theory of the representative has always been that he is a delegate sent to vote, not for what he thinks best, but for what his constituents think best, even if it controverts his own opinion." While democracies seem to be getting tired of the representative system, they do not admit that a dictatorship is the alternative, or that the legislatures we see are the last thing they have to try. "There are signs of a strong disposition which the Swiss have done much to stimulate, to try the 'referendum' more frequently, on a larger scale, as a mode of enacting laws." We quote the concluding paragraphs of Mr. Godkin's observations:

"Side by side with the annual or biennial legislature we have another kind of legislature, the 'constitutional convention,' which retains everybody's respect, and whose work, generally marked by care and forethought, compares creditably with the legislation of any similar body in the world. Through the hundred years of national existence it has received little but favorable criticism from any quarter. It is still an honor to have a seat in it. The best men in the community are still eager or willing to serve in it, no matter at what cost to health or private affairs. I can not recall one convention which has incurred either odium or contempt. Time and social changes have often frustrated its expectations, or have shown its provisions for the public welfare to be inadequate or mistaken, but it is very rare indeed to hear its wisdom and integrity questioned. In looking over the list of those who have figured in the conventions of the State of New York since the Revolution, one finds the name of nearly every man of weight and prominence; and few lay it down without thinking how happy we should be if we could secure such service for our ordinary legislative bodies.

"Now what makes the difference? Three things, mainly. First, the constitutional convention, as a rule, meets only once in about twenty years. Men, therefore, who would not think of serving in an annual legislature, are ready on these rare occasions to sacrifice their personal convenience to the public interest. Secondly, every one knows that the labors of the body, if adopted, will continue in operation without change for the best part of one's lifetime. Thirdly, its conclusions will be subjected to the strictest scrutiny by the public, and will not be put in force without adoption by a popular vote. All this makes an American state constitution, as a rule, a work of the highest statesmanship, which reflects credit on the country, tends powerfully to promote the general happiness and prosperity, and is quoted or copied in foreign countries in the construction of organic laws. The constitutional convention is as conspicuous an example of successful government as the state legislatures are of failure. If we can learn anything from the history of these bodies, therefore, it is that if the meetings of the legislature were much rarer, say once in five or ten years, we should secure a higher order of talent and character for its membership and more careful deliberation for its measures, and should greatly reduce the number of the latter. But we can go further, and say that inasmuch as all important matter devised by the convention is submitted to the people with eminent success, there is no reason why all grave measures of ordinary legislation should not be submitted also. In other words, the referendum is not confined to Switzerland. We have it among us already. All, or nearly all our state constitutions are the product of a referendum. The number of important measures with which the legislature feels chary about dealing, which are brought before the people by its direction, increases every year. Upon the question of the location of the state capital and of some state institutions, of the expenditure of public money, of the establishment of banks, of the maintenance or sale of canals, of leasing public lands, of taxation beyond a certain amount, of the prohibition of the liquor traffic, of the extension of the suffrage, and upon several other subjects, a popular vote is often taken in various States.

"In short, there is no discussion of the question of legislatures in which either great restriction in the number or length of their sessions, or the remission of a greatly increased number of subjects to treatment by the popular vote, does not appear as a favorite remedy for their abuses and shortcomings. If we may judge by these signs, the representative system, after a century of existence, under a very extended suffrage, has failed to satisfy the expectations of its earlier promoters, and is likely to make way in its turn for the more direct action of the people on the most important questions of government, and a much-diminished demand for all legislation whatever. This, at all events, is the only remedy now in sight, which is much talked about or is considered worthy of serious attention."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

TAMMANY'S FOURTH OF JULY.

Music.

"Consecration in Politics,"
Hon. Grover Cleveland.

"The Perpetual Office-Seeker,"
Hon. Henry Watterson.

"Why I am Ecstatic,"
Hon. T. F. Bayard.

"When Tommy Wags His Tail,"
Hon. James B. Eustis.

Music.

"I Am a Democrat,"
Hon. D. B. Hill.

"We are Seven,"
Hon. John M. Palmer.

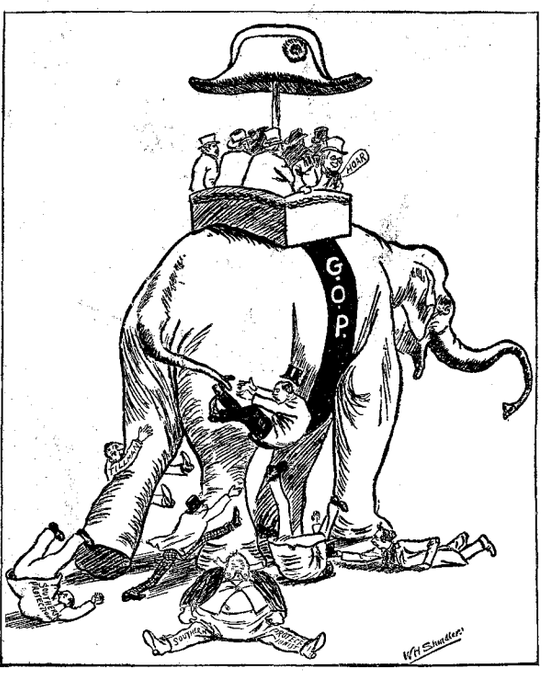
"Salvation Cheap for Cash,"
Hon. William D. Bynum.

"Cuckoos I Have Met,"
Hon. William J. Bryan.

Anthem by the whole company—"Comrades."
—*The Post*, *Washington*.

How would it do to give Hawaii to Mr. Debs for a cooperative commonwealth?—*The News*, *Galveston*.

AGAIN it appears that if Harvard and Yale want to win they will have to row races by themselves. These younger colleges are so impertinently obtrusive at the finish.—*The Globe*, *Boston*.



SOUTHERN PROTECTION DEMOCRATS CATCHING ON.
—*The North American*, *Philadelphia*.

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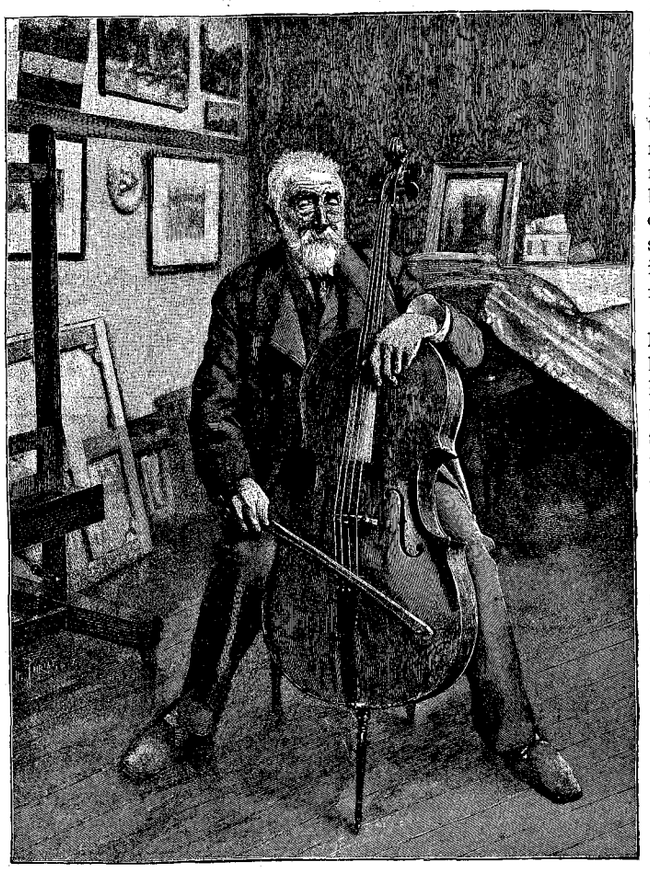
LETTERS AND ART.

THE PAINTER WHO WINS THE MEDAL OF HONOR IN FRANCE THIS YEAR.

M. HARPIGNIES, who won the medal of honor at the Salon of the Champs-Elysées this year (and who is said to have sent a picture to the present exhibition at the Royal Academy in London, which was promptly refused), exhibited two pictures, both landscapes. One was called "Solitude," the other "The Borders of the Rhone." The high distinction awarded to him



M. HARPIGNIES.

is the more flattering, as landscape-painters rarely obtain it. Among living artists, the venerable M. Louis Français is the only one who can claim a like honor. Corot had also his medal of honor, but outside of the Salon and without official character. *L'Illustration* (Paris, May 29) says:

"This judgment will be ratified by the public, because for a long time M. Harpignies has represented each year the choice of the painters, in their nominations to the jury. This supreme homage, tardy tho it be, will be considered the worthy crown of a long, laborious, and brilliant artistic career.

"M. Harpignies was born at Valenciennes on the 28th of July, 1819, and is therefore seventy-eight years of age; but one would scarcely believe it, so great is the freshness of the man and of his talent.

"Pupil of J. Achard, he made his first contributions to the Salon in 1853. These consisted of a little landscape of the environs of his native village, and a 'View of Capri.' Since then he has applied himself exclusively to reproducing corners of French soil, but this vision of classic Italy is not forgotten. Like Corot, whose early pictures were similar, he passed through the effervescent stage of the striving naturalist without being shaken in his artistic convictions. From nature he chooses almost nothing of what others copy servilely; on the contrary, he expresses the sensations which she suggests in souls truly sensitive to her beauties. Better than almost any one, he perceives the harmony of lines and light; and his hand is sure to render what his mind groups together in the outline of a picture. Classic he certainly is, but not in the sense that Bidault or Bertin would have understood it at the beginning of the century; direct observation from nature is the base of all his compositions.

"The production of this rare and valiant artist is considerable. His pictures are found wherever art is respected, in the museums and among true amateurs. His aquarelles are esteemed as highly as his oil-paintings; the extreme facility of production has not made him fall into commonplace work.

"It is safe to say that his example has exercised a considerable influence on the new generation of landscape-painters. For a long time he was the only one among us to claim the right of the ideal in the conception of a landscape, and by his technic he has demonstrated the preeminence of design over color, because the design suffices to give the illusion of truth and of color itself.

"In appearance, M. Harpignies but little resembles his painting; to see his broad back, his rubicund face, and his merry twinkle, one would readily imagine him to be a painter of kermesses or of sportive subjects of a more modern sort; but he does not long deceive his world. The poet in him, so eloquently brought to light in his work, appears as soon as art enters the conversation. What he says of painting, literature, or music shows him from the first word to be an artist charmed by beauty in her most severe form. This antithesis of body and mind is not infrequently met with among painters and writers.

"The portrait that we give of M. Harpignies represents him at home in an attitude dear to him; distinguished as a musician, he knows no greater joy than to take part in a classical quartet. Invited by our photographer to assume some characteristic attitude, he immediately seized his violoncello. The eminent landscape-painter will permit me to say in closing, in accord perhaps with his habitual auditors, that one prefers generally to see him with his brushes between his fingers."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

The Flood of Literature.—The persistent drops of ink from the pens of myriads of ambitious authors all over the world are beginning to wear away the patience of a good many readers. Their feelings of utter weariness are well expressed by Eliot Barnes, who writes as follows to *The Literary Review* (Boston, May):

"I am tired of reading. Books, papers, magazines, pamphlets, all come to me and demand that they shall be scanned; nay, that they shall be read, admired, or damned; and when they are read they are cast aside and a fresh batch of matter lies close at hand. And the end of it does not appear in sight. Stem the tide, I can not. Swear off, I do; but, like the toper, I am weak and fall at the first temptation. My spirit, my flesh, my power of resistance is weak, and I succumb as one without moral rectitude or will power. What benefits me my reading? I absorb, but I am never full. I gather the thoughts of the writers, but I do not rethink them. I criticize the style or the plot or the characters, but I am grown so critical that I can not produce. I am beyond any form of independent thinking. If, by mere chance, I think on some happy thought, I am suspicious that it is but the relocation of some old gathered thought that I once read, and I feel like a thief whenever I dare to put forth the idea. I am become a faithful echo of the authors I so faithfully read and there is no original health in me. Alas! who shall deliver me from the body of this state that I find myself in? If I could shut off from myself all books and periodicals, restricting myself to what books my library contains, I might in a decade or so become regenerated and in a condition to reread my possessed books and find them not only interesting, but suggestive and helpful. But can I do that very much-to-be-desired thing? I fear my powers when I set the task before me seriously. I know how it will be; I know my fate. I shall go on till the end of my time reading, reading whatever comes to me; reading it without purpose, reading for no thought, reading but to say to myself that I have read such and such books and papers, and I shall become more and more a mackintosh, on which the gentle rains of diluted thought fall and glide off, and I be all dry and musty within. I shall read myself into a state of desiccation, and when I am disembodied I shall become a mere floating alphabet."

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WOMAN'S PLACE IN THE WORLD OF LETTERS.

IT is a new view of a somewhat hackneyed subject that we get from Mrs. J. R. Green's article on the above title (*Nineteenth Century*, June). The view is not altogether complimentary to woman as a writer, but it is most distinctly so to woman as woman, for it attributes her failure to master the art of expression to the fact that she is "a strayed wanderer from some different sphere, a witness, a herald it may be, of another system lying on the ultimate marge and confines of space and time." This rather startling and, at first appearance, rather fantastic conclusion becomes altogether rational as we follow Mrs. Green's line of thought.

We have, says she, but a century in which to judge woman's work in literature. Then she continues as follows:

"A century is a short span in the history of woman, and the most acute observers will be the least bold to foretell the secret counsels of Nature and Fate, and what they have in store for this new enterprise of hers. Nor is the shortness of the experiment the only difficulty we feel. For even in her literary venture woman remains essentially mysterious. It is as tho some inherent diffidence, some overmastering self-distrust, had made her fear to venture out into the open unprotected and bare to attack. She covers her advance with a whole complicated machinery of arrow-proof hides and wooden shelters. Or she seeks safety in what is known in nature as protective mimicry—one recalls the touching forms of beautiful creatures that, dwelling in the arid desert, have shrouded themselves in the dull hue of the soil, or in arctic cold have taken on a snowy whiteness; of live breathing things that have made themselves after the likeness of a dead twig, and harmless beings who in their alarm have donned the gay air of predatory insects and poisonous reptiles. Over wide seas, where it is hard to say if she fears man or nature most, woman sails under any color but her own—as in perilous days a racing yacht hoisted the black flag of the pirate to be in fashion with the wild world. . . .

"'Le génie,' it is often said, 'n'a pas de sexe.' [Genius knows no sex.] And no doubt this may be true in a sphere, if genius care to enter there, where all is artificial. The busy contrivances of women for adaptation and assimilation do tend to obliterate distinctions, and to rob their work of both the eccentricity which they fear and the originality they distrust. The tortoise's head is kept well under cover. Only under some stress of overpowering emotion can woman be betrayed into anything like self-revelation—and perhaps she is never quite self-forgetful enough for frank expression of her feeling, save under the passionate impulse of poetry. There are prose-writers, such as in the highest degree Charlotte Brontë with feeling set aflame by a burning imagination, and George Eliot in whom emotion is sustained by intellectual passion, who at the height of their argument overleap common bounds; but it may be doubted whether there is any woman save Christina Rossetti (and within her own limits Emily Brontë), whose sincerity has never faltered, and whose ardent soul has constantly scorned to wear the livery of any passion save its own. Her range indeed is narrow, and Mrs. Browning, with an emotion in some directions no less intense, may seem to throw open the doors to a wider and more varied scene. But if we separate the songs in which under a genuine poetic inspiration she gives the direct intimations of her own soul from those that betray the iridescent activities of a sympathetic and gifted intellect, not untinged with literary ambition, the personal contribution of her independent genius may prove, to say the least, equally limited in its scope and less profound in its significance. Christina Rossetti still remains the one poetess who, passing the bounds of the world to that awful region beyond fear, has dared steadily to survey the ultimate deep that lies within the woman's nature. In the singleness and intensity of her vision she has perhaps found one secret of that rare artistic completeness in which she surpasses not only all women but most men."

This precaution and disguise exhibited by women in their literary work, Mrs. Green tells us, is not to be accounted for by timidity, vanity, or hatred of criticism. The problem is more profound and goes down to the mysterious unconsciousness that lies in the ultimate depths of woman's nature. The depths of her feeling, the elemental powers within her that are apart from the intellect, transcend the bounds of direct observation or just expression. We quote further:

"Hidden from herself as it were in the unsounded deeps of life, she must ever be helpless to justify experiences as imperative as they are obscure, or to find in mere language, which in every age of the world still lags behind thought and perception, terms to express the subtle intimations that visit her. Hence her strange inarticulateness, as of primitive peoples painfully forging speech to serve the violent needs of the life that possesses them. Conscious expression becomes a sort of agony—

> 'With stammering lips and insufficient sound,
> I strive and struggle to deliver right
> The music of my nature. . . .
> But if I did it, as the thunder-roll
> Breaks its own cloud, my flesh would perish there
> Before that dread apocalypse of soul.'

She is haunted by a twofold experience. Primitive emotions and instincts that rise from abysses of nature where she herself is one with the world that lies below consciousness, carry with them an authority so potent and tyrannical that she is impelled to rank them above all functions of intelligence. On the other hand, a rude and ruthless discipline warns her that these are but the raw material with which nature works, lopping off here, and cutting down there, everything that pushes above the sanctioned level."

In certain regions of intellectual activity, we are told, woman seems to show no intention of setting foot. She has remained aloof, with but rare exceptions, from theological, metaphysical, and political speculation. She has remained detached from the whole classic world. She is intensely modern:

"It is to the latest subjects that she turns; and in science and the new study of human life in the novel her chief laurels have been won. For her the world has practically no past—it begins here and now where she stands. It is indeed astonishing to survey all that she has tacitly rejected in making her selection out of the world's material, as one might fastidiously pick a rosy apple from a decaying heap; nor can we feel that the problem is met by easy explanations and commonplaces of want of opportunity or want of capacity. As we watch this strange indifference, at times indeed these spasms of hostility, to the past and to all law that the past has revealed, are there not moments when we again seem to touch those profound instincts whose roots go down into the deep of unconscious being? What if these things should be but signs that woman is herself no better than a stranger in the visible established order of this world—a strayed wanderer from some different sphere—a witnesss, a herald it may be, of another system lying on the ultimate marge and confines of space and time. Man is no stranger in this sense. In the world without he can distinguish a harmony, an intellectual order which responds to and justifies his reason. . . .

"For woman, on the other hand, the natural order of things affords no adequate justification. Her deepest instinct is hostile to the visible order of nature. She does not speak the tongue of this world, nor does she in her heart think its thoughts. For much that it offers her she cares nothing, while what she herself has to give is strangely disproportionate and uncalled for, and fits in ill with the ordinary course of life. Inspired by a ceaseless passion—unconscious, inarticulate, blind, with no warrant of triumph—she appears as the astonishing and miraculous manifestation of a new force that has never reigned here as law, the force of redeeming love. With a sublime economy she is everlastingly busy retrieving the waste of the world. Alone she wanders in desolate places strewn with wrecks and waifs, forever gathering up the fragments that nothing be lost—a sad, obscure, interminable contest with the destroyer, lightened by no promise. The trophies she carries home at night are the broken, the sick, and the dead. Painters have shown us in the group that gathered round the dead Christ the scene that is evermore renewed; from the beginning of the world till now women have brought their tears, their frankincense, and myrrh as a vain, sweet protest against the brutalities of nature and destiny."

If, however, woman is to deliver her true message, to be the apostle of a new era, she must, concludes Mrs. Green, throw

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aside the curiosity of the stranger and the license of the anarchist, philosophy and history must become the very alphabet of her studies, and she must learn to speak the language of the world as a skilled interpreter, not as a barbarian or foreigner.

PERSONAL REMINISCENCES OF FORREST.

NOT only on the stage, but off it as well, was Edwin Forrest an actor, so we are told by Alice Kingsbury, who, as old theater-goers will remember, was herself once a popular star. She writes a light, but interesting, article on "Forrest, McCullough—and Myself" in *The Overland Monthly* (June), in the

EDWIN FORREST.

course of which she has the following to say about Forrest, and, incidentally, about Macready and the riots in New York in 1849 caused by the jealousy between the two actors:

"Forrest was always 'the great tragedian,' and, after his divorce, generally moody and silent; but when he spoke it was in deep tragic tones, and with shakings of his black curly locks that impressed the listener with unbounded awe.

"No one, I think, ever dared to joke or be familiar with the great Forrest. When 'alimony day' came around and he had to pay a good round sum to his divorced wife, it was better to keep away from him, for then he allowed his temper and 'ugliness' to have full sway.

"Nowhere in American dramatic history does an actor stand out with the prominence of Forrest. His individuality was so pronounced that no one who once met him could ever obliterate that meeting from his memory. Forrest is also a part of history, for there are many who remember the 'Macready riots,' incited primarily by Forrest hissing Macready in 'Hamlet,' for introducing some business he did not like—waving a handkerchief and dancing on in the players' scene—which Forrest sarcastically dubbed 'the Pas de Mouchoir.' This was in London, and the news spread like wildfire, so that after playing a magnificent first engagement all over England, his second was made a failure by Macready's friends, hissing, groaning, and interrupting his plays.

"Macready's second engagement in America was treated likewise in retaliation. On May 7, 1849, he was not allowed to go beyond the third act in 'Macbeth,' but, being encouraged by friends, he essayed it again on the 10th. But the mob assaulted the doors and windows of the Astor Place Opera House so outrageously that the police were unable to protect the building, and when every remonstrance failed, the Seventh Regiment was ordered to fire into the mob, with the result of thirty dead, according to James Rees, but Lawrence Barrett says one hundred and thirty-four killed and one hundred wounded.

"Macready had a 'nasty' temper, and he really bemoaned it all his life, his diary containing constant allusions to his prayers and efforts to control it, but he was deeply grieved by the riot and its tragic results.

"My father once witnessed a performance of his in London, in some play where he has to be held up while dying. A little man had that duty to perform on this particular night, and my father, being near, heard the stage whisper of the great Macready, 'D—n'ee, hold me up!'

"'D—n you! hold yourself up,' said the plucky little man, and dumped the great actor down on the stage amid the laughter of the audience."

The following anecdote is reproduced by Mrs. Cooley. Several versions have been given of it, but this the one given to her by John McCullough, who used to support Forrest, and afterward Mrs. Cooley:

"One day at rehearsal an actor in a subordinate part could not declaim a certain speech to suit the great tragedian [Forrest].

"'Do it again,' said the G. T.—but again it did not suit.

"'Again!' With the same result. At last the G. T. gave the speech himself in his best style, then said:

"'There, my man, can't you say it in that way?'

"'If I could, Mr. Forrest,' replied the actor, in a little squeaky voice—remember he was a *very* subordinate—'I shouldn't be here working for three dollars a week.'

"'Is that all you get?—then say it as you d—n please.' And the great Forrest bothered him no more."

THE LITERATURE OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

AS professor of American history in Cornell University, Prof. Moses Coit Tyler possesses special qualifications for a task the first part of which he has just accomplished—that of tracing through the literature of the revolutionary period the real motives and aims both of those who favored American independence and of those who urged that the colonists' grievances could be redressed without resort to arms. As stated by the author, the purpose of the book is "to set forth the inward history of our Revolution—the history of its ideas, its spiritual moods, its motives, its passions, even of its sportive caprices and its whims, as these uttered themselves at the time, whether consciously or not, in the various writings of the two parties of Americans who promoted or resisted that great movement."

In carrying out this plan for deriving from their literature an intimate knowledge of the people who made history during the Revolution Professor Tyler has for more than twenty years been making researches and accumulating material drawn from all possible sources of information. The writings which go to make up this unique history are of many kinds. There is the correspondence of the time, letters from persons in different parts of America touching on public affairs. In another class Professor Tyler includes the papers put forth either by the General Congress, by local legislatures, or by prominent men in public office. A third class consists of oral addresses, either secular or sacred, many of which found their way into print. The numerous political essays, published either in the newspapers or as pamphlets, come in for a large share of attention, and are regarded as giving expression, more than any other publications, to the real thoughts and opinions of the American people on the questions which then divided them. Akin to these essays are the political satires, both in prose and verse, which were so numerous at this time.

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Then there is the lyrical poetry of the Revolution: the party-songs, army-songs, ballads, and the hymns of patriotic thankfulness and trust. Humorous productions in verse and prose, and a variety of dramatic compositions, represent both the humor and the tragic sentiment of the period. And from the actual experiences of the Revolution came prose narratives in the several forms of personal diaries, military journals, tales of adventure on land or sea, and records of suffering in military prisons.

Professor Tyler is careful to distinguish between the writings produced during the Revolutionary period as the result of general intellectual activity, and those which were due directly to the Revolution, and to the conflict of ideas and the awakening of thought produced by it. It is from the latter class that he has drawn a picture of the American people as they actually thought and were moved to action by the events of that heroic time.

Of the general character of the literary productions of this period, the author writes thus:

"The literature which we are thus to inspect is not, then, a literature of tranquillity, but chiefly a literature of strife, or, as the Greeks would have said, of agony; and, of course, it must take those forms in which intellectual and impassioned debate can be most effectually carried on. The literature of our Revolution has almost everywhere the combative note; its habitual method is argumentative, persuasive, appealing, rasping, retaliatory; the very brain of man seems to be in armor; his wit is in the gladiator's attitude of offense and defense. It is a literature indulging itself in grimaces, in mockery, in scowls: a literature accented by earnest gestures meant to convince people, or by fierce blows meant to smite them down. In this literature we must not expect to find art used for art's sake. Nay, art itself, so far as it is here at all, is swept into the universal conscription, and enrolled for the service of the one party or of the other in the imperilled young republic. No man is likely to be in the mood for esthetics who has an assassin's pistol at his head. Even the passion for the beautiful has been known to yield to the instinct for self-preservation."

Beginning with the speeches and writings of James Otis, whose argument against the petition for writs of assistance in the superior court of Massachusetts is described as "a notable landmark in the history of our relations to the Mother Country," the first volume of the history is brought down to the promulgation of the Declaration of Independence. In the mass of controversial writings which appeared during this period, two features are prominent: first, the sincere affection of the colonists for England, manifest in the first ten or twelve years of the Revolution; and, second, the rapid growth of the conviction that absolute independence was necessary in order to preserve the rights and liberties of the American people. An example of the earlier sentiment is quoted from Francis Hopkinson, of Philadelphia, who writes in 1766:

"Were it possible for Great Britain, with an high and arbitrary hand, to think of snatching from her colonies the essential privileges of Englishmen, . . . it would be to dress her slaves in livery, and deck America in robes of paper, to make her the contempt and derision of every other nation. But why should the mutual connection between the parent country and her colonies ever come into question? Are we not one nation and one people? And do we not own obedience to one common king? . . . We of America are in all respects Englishmen, notwithstanding that the Atlantic rolls its waves between us and the throne to which we all owe allegiance. Nor can we, tho in ever so flourishing a state, throw off our dependence, or dissolve this union, without breaking the very bonds of nature. How detestable, then, must the politician be, who should even attempt to kindle the destructive flames of jealousy between two friends, whom nature seems to have united in the closest bonds, and whose hearts and interests are and ever ought to be one! Should any one ever succeed in this (which God forbid), I doubt not but that, after much cruel and unnatural bloodshed, each would rush into the other's arms, and emphatically cry out—'We both were in the wrong.'"

Ten years after, the name of Francis Hopkinson was affixed to the Declaration of Independence.

Among the writings which were instrumental in bringing about the change from a peaceful agitation for securing a redress of grievances, to a movement having for its object the establishment of a free republic, Professor Tyler gives a high position to Thomas Paine's "Common Sense." Of this masterly pamphlet George Washington wrote, sixteen days after it had been published: "A few more of such flaming arguments as were exhibited at Falmouth and Norfolk, added to the sound doctrine and unanswerable reasoning contained in the pamphlet 'Common Sense,' will not leave numbers at a loss to decide upon the propriety of separation." Again, writing from Cambridge, Washington says: "My countrymen, I know, from their form of government and steady attachment heretofore to royalty, will come reluctantly into the idea of independence, but time and persecution bring many wonderful things to pass; and by private letters which I have lately received from Virginia, I find 'Common Sense' is working a powerful change there in the minds of men."

The Declaration of Independence Professor Tyler calls "the one American state paper that has reached to supreme distinction in the world, and that seems likely to last as long as American civilization lasts." Of its immortal author he says:

"No one at all familiar with his other writings, as well as with the writings of his chief contemporaries, could ever have a moment's doubt, even if the fact were not already notorious, that this document was by Jefferson. He put into it something that was his own, and that no one else could have put there. He put himself into it—his own genius, his own moral force, his faith in God, his faith in ideas, his love of innovation, his passion for progress, his invincible enthusiasm, his intolerance of proscription, of injustice, of cruelty, his sympathy, his clarity of vision, his affluence of diction, his power to fling out great phrases which will long fire and cheer the souls of men struggling against political unrighteousness. And herein lies its essential originality, perhaps the most precious, and indeed almost the only, originality ever attaching to any great literary product that is representative of its time."

Of the Declaration itself and of its influence upon American institutions, and especially of its influence in securing the abolition of slavery, Professor Tyler says:

"Moreover, during the century and a quarter since the close of the Revolution, the influence of this state paper on the political character and the political conduct of the American people has been great beyond all calculation. For example, after we had achieved our own national deliverance, and had advanced into that enormous and somewhat corrupting material prosperity which followed the adoption of the Constitution, the development of the cotton interest, and the expansion of the republic into trans-continental power, we fell, as is now most apparent, under an appalling national temptation—the temptation to forget, or to repudiate, or to refuse to apply to the case of our human brethren in bondage the very principles which we ourselves had once proclaimed as the basis of every rightful government, and as the ultimate source of our own claim to an untrammeled national life. The prodigious service rendered to us in this awful moral emergency by the Declaration of Independence was that its public repetition, at least once every year, in the hearing of vast throngs of the American people, in every portion of the republic, kept constantly before our minds, in a form of almost religious sanctity, those few great ideas as to the dignity of human nature, and the sacredness of personality, and the indestructible rights of man as mere man, with which we had so gloriously identified the beginnings of our national existence, and upon which we had proceeded to erect all our political institutions both for the nation and for the States. It did, indeed, at last become very hard for us to listen each year to the preamble of the Declaration of Independence, and still to remain the owners and users and catchers of slaves; still harder to accept the doctrine that the righteousness and prosperity of slavery was to be taken as the dominant policy of the nation. The logic of Calhoun was as flawless as usual, when he concluded that the chief obstruction in the way of

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his system was the preamble of the Declaration of Independence. Had it not been for the inviolable sacredness given by it to those sweeping aphorisms about natural rights of man, it may be doubted whether, under the vast practical inducements involved, Calhoun might have succeeded in winning over an immense majority of the American people to the support of his compact and plausible scheme for making slavery the basis of the republic. It was the preamble of the Declaration of Independence which elected Lincoln, which sent forth the Emancipation Proclamation, which gave victory to Grant, which ratified the Thirteenth Amendment."

Professor Tyler does not, however, despite his admiration for the Declaration of Independence, consider that the Loyalists were lacking either in logic or patriotism in opposing the movement of separation from England. Especially was their position in meeting the cry of "No taxation without representation" a strong one. We quote the Professor again:

"Have we not all been taught from our childhood that the citation of that old maxim simply settled the constitutional merits of the whole controversy, and settled it absolutely in favor of the Whigs? But did it so settle it? Have we not been accustomed to think that the refusal of the American Tories to give way before the citation of that maxim was merely a case of criminal stupidity or of criminal perversity on their part? But was it so?

"On the contrary, many of the profoundest constitutional lawyers in America, as well as in England, both rejected the foregoing Whig contention, and at the same time admitted the soundness and the force of the venerable maxim upon which that contention was alleged to rest. Thus the leading English jurists, who supported the parliamentary taxation of the colonies, did not dispute that maxim. Even George Grenville, the author and champion of the Stamp Act, did not dispute it. . . .

"Here everything depends, they argued, on the meaning to be attached to the word representation; and that meaning is to be ascertained by ascertaining what was understood by the word in English at the time when this old maxim originated, and in the subsequent ages during which it had been quoted and applied. Now, the meaning then attached to the word in actual constitutional experience in England is one which shows that the commons of America, like the commons of England, are alike represented in that great branch of British Parliament which proclaims its representative character in its very name—the House of Commons. During the whole period in which the maxim under consideration had been acquiring authority, the idea was that representation in Parliament was constituted, not through any uniform distribution, among individual persons, of the privilege of voting for members, but rather through a distribution of such privilege among certain organized communities, as counties, cities, boroughs, and universities, to which at an early day this function had been assigned according to a method then deemed equable and just. . . .

"Accordingly, when certain English commoners in America at last rose up and put forward the claim that, merely because they had no votes for members of the House of Commons, therefore that House did not represent them, and therefore they could not lawfully be taxed by Parliament, it was very naturally said, in reply, that these English commoners in America were demanding for themselves a new and a peculiar definition of the word representation; a definition never up to that time given to it in England, and never of course up to that time claimed or enjoyed by English commons in England. For, how was it at that time in England with respect to the electoral privilege? Indeed, very few people in England then had votes for members of the House of Commons—only one tenth of the entire population of the realm. How about the other nine tenths of the population of the realm? Had not those British subjects in England as good a right as these British subjects in America to deny that they were represented in Parliament, and that they could be lawfully taxed by Parliament? Nay, such was the state of the electoral system that entire communities of British subjects in England, composing such cities as Leeds, Halifax, Birmingham, Manchester, and Liverpool—communities as populous and as rich as entire provinces in America—had no votes whatever for members of Parliament."

Of the effect of his book upon the minds of its readers, in regard to the relations between England and America, Professor Tyler (in his preface) writes as follows:

"I must confess that, in the book now offered to the public, I have written a new history of the origin and growth and culmination of this race feud, so far as I am able to do so, in the simple service of historic truth, and without permitting myself to be turned this way or that by any consideration touching the practical consequences that might result either from fidelity or from infidelity to my duty as an historian. At the same time, I now greatly mistake the case, if one practical consequence of this history, so far as it may find readers at all, shall not be eirenic, rather than polemic—namely, the promotion of the better understanding, of a deeper respect, of a kindlier mood, on both sides of the ocean, among the descendants of those determined men who so bitterly differed in opinion."

At the Desk of a Circulating Library.—The following paragraphs from *The Monthly Bulletin* of the New York Free Circulating Library make it evident that there must be a good deal of amusement even in serving an impatient public at the desk of a free library:

"Books Called for Recently: Frank's Champagne; Lizzie's Weekly; Camille, by Shakespeare; The Wandering Evangeline; Laramie's robbers (Les Misérables); Daughter of life (Fife); Three mosquitoes; Engulane, by Whongfellow; Trial of Lord Gilbers, by Parker (Trail of the sword, by Gilbert Parker); History of O'Brien (of a crime); Scrapecoat (The scapegoat); The walking Jew; My cellar (Marcella); Mr. Midshipman, Esq.; Twenty thousand legs under the sea; Huxley's gray fish; Advice of Sherlock Holmes; Wilkie Collin's poetry; A red history with a white map outside.

"Heard at the Application Desk: 'Missus! I want to sign a pledge.' 'Must my referee give my reputation to you, and tell if I will steal or not?' 'I would like to start the library.' 'I would like an occupation card.' 'I want to join the application. Let me have an applicant.' 'How old are you?' 'I'm ten, but I nebber growed.'

"Heard at the Delivery Desk: 'Do I have to pay interest on this book?' 'Give me the same book with another story.' 'The book is out of print.' 'Well, can't you print it again?' 'Don't like King Richard II.; that's only a small play. I go to see big plays in the Fifth Avenue.' 'You will not understand this book.' 'Oh, I've got a dictionary at home.' 'Teacher! There's something damaging in this book' [pages torn]. 'Let me have the book once; I had it again.' 'Have you a novel-dictionary here?'"

NOTES.

Princess Troubetzkoy, *née* Amelie Rives, has been broken down, so the newspapers state, by excessive literary work, and is now a patient in a private sanitarium in Philadelphia. She is not permitted to see either her huband or her father.

The greatest Japanese artist of modern times, Hokusai, wrote as follows in 1835, when he was seventy-five years of age: "I have scarcely yet had time to comprehend the structure of natural objects, but when I am eighty I hope to have made progress; at ninety I shall penetrate into the mystery of things; at one hundred years I shall surely have arrived at a marvelous proficiency, and at the age of one hundred and ten, every line, every touch in my work, will be alive." Fifteen years later he died, saying, "If heaven would but grant me five years more I might become a really great painter."

Writing of Paul Verlaine, in *The New Review*, June, C. F. Keary concludes an article as follows: "It has been related how, just at the end of his life, the poet set to work to paint with gold paint the scanty furniture of his scanty garret, because, as he said, the Americans had begun to read him, and that meant wealth. *O sancta simplicitas!* The Americans, the English-speaking peoples, will never read him. If they do at all, it is as like to be for prurient reasons. His fellow countrymen did not read him either to an extent sufficient to keep him from penury. A certain clique gathered round him, whose affectations he despised. And when he died, the kind of people 'who do those things,' the notoriety-hunters, bribed press-men to make mention of their names in connection with the dead poet. His funeral to Clichy Cemetery was well attended, and sleek Academicians spoke over his grave. Surely his ghost must have laughed!

"To some of us Verlaine will be a recollection as we saw him time and again in the corner of his chosen café for the while being, his glass of absinthe before him, the two halls guarding him behind. The sensuous face was set and stolid, but the small eyes twinkled. The outside body of the satyr was before us. But within was another being eternally young, the fawn of the Greek sculptor, intent and eternally awake."

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SCIENCE.

HEARING THROUGH THE FINGERS.

PHYSIOLOGISTS tell us that all the senses are merely intensified local developments of the general sensitiveness of the skin; in other words, that sight, hearing, etc., are derived ultimately from the sense of touch. In an article quoted in these columns not long ago it was shown that in many animals the skin is sensitive to light, and now Professor McKendrick, of Glasgow University, has discovered that with the aid of special electric appliances the nerves of touch can be made sensitive to sound. We quote the following paragraphs from a description of Professor McKendrick's experiments by Dr. J. G. McPherson, in *Knowledge,* June. Dr. McPherson entitles his article suggestively, "Can the Deaf Appreciate Music?" He tells us that about a year ago, in experimenting on the effect of sound from a phonograph on a telephone-transmitter, he connected his transmitter to the primary circuit of an induction coil and fastened the ends of the secondary or induced circuit to platinum strips in little troughs of acidulated water, in which he immersed his fingers. What then occurred we relate in Dr. McPherson's words:

"He was then astonished to find that when the phonograph was in motion and emitting notes of music, an electric thrill was felt in his fingers which corresponded to the rhythm, time, and intensity of the tune given out by the phonograph. By carefully graduating the strength of the induction shocks, he distinctly felt each successive note and each chord of the music. This discovery at once suggested to him that those whose fingers are exceptionally sensitive because of the defect in one of the senses would appreciate more keenly the meaning of the thrills from the insulated trough, as a kind of strange music. The sensory nerves of the skin can appreciate all the variations in resistance in the microphone-transmitter suspended over the phonograph, discoursing familiar tunes. The only difficulty is the regulating of the strength of the stimulation. If it is too strong, muscular twitchings are excited, and the rhythm of the music is blurred; but when regulated, the 'thrill' is carried to the brain with a correct impression of the sound. . . .

"Professor McKendrick is puzzled with the effects of rapid induction currents on the skin elements. The currents do not produce pressure in the ordinary sense; nor do they produce sensations of temperature; nor are they of a painful character. So far as he is aware, no observations have been made on the stimulation of sensory skin-nerves, except with reference to the production of reflex acts. But he has been directing his attention to the effects of stimulation of the skin—varying in number, in intensity, and in rhythm—on the brain.

"Of course, it is well known that a single stimulus applied to a motor nerve will cause a single twitch, and the distinguishing characteristics of such twitches are equally well known. If the stimuli come in very rapid succession, muscular rigidity is the result. Accordingly, considerable care is necessary in the carrying out of the experiments.

"Professor McKendrick introduced into the circuit of the primary various interrupters—clocks, metronomes, vibrating strings, and tuning-forks—to ascertain their effects. These varied in speed from one to two hundred vibrations per second. The terminals of the secondary coil were carried to the platinum foil in the vulcanite troughs containing the salt solution; and he dipped his fingers into the troughs. He could readily mark the successive stimuli up to fifty per second. When the number of stimuli was raised to one hundred and twenty per second, there was a thrill comparable to the effect of very rapid musical beats, causing disagreeable roughness. Above that the effect was of a more solid character, which could not be analyzed into details.

"By repeated experiments Professor McKendrick has established the fact that the sensory nerves of the skin can appreciate electrical stimulations corresponding in number, rhythm, and intensity to the notes or chords of a complicated piece of music. But the stimulation of the skin (so far as is yet known) can give no accurate appreciation of the pitch of individual tones; altho, when stimulations are comparatively few in number, the sensation is rough, and different from the continuous sensation occasioned by very numerous stimulations. Nor can the stimulation of the skin give any idea of the quality of tone. He can not detect any feeling like that which leads us, when we intelligently listen to music, to be, as it were, searching for the tones that determine scales. Still, there remain the elements of rhythm, and this includes the duration of individual tones, and the intensity of tone. As to time and duration, he has found the sensations quite distinct. After careful and repeated tests of the varieties of simple and compound times, he has found no difficulty in distinguishing the one from the other.

"It is from these experiments that the professor is sanguine about influencing the brain of the deaf through the fingers, so as to make them understand some of the elements of music. Yet he admits that, so far as his experiments guide his judgment, the music thus transmitted to the deaf will be, as it were, 'on one plane.' Several deaf persons on whom he has experimented have appeared to be startled with the new sensations, and when it was explained to them that there was something of these new sensations in music they apparently had increased pleasure, because they could more intelligently sympathize with those who had the coveted sense of appreciating music."

Dr. McPherson here reminds us that tho the deaf may not actually hear through their finger-tips, yet the stimulus thus imparted may awake in them a sort of ghost of sound, just as sounds cause some persons to imagine they see colors, and just as the exercise of one sense often calls up others in many ways. He says:

"If the skin be excited by quiet currents of electricity, pleasurable sensations may be produced; if regulated stimuli be applied to the fingers through the isolated troughs, duration, time, and rhythm may be recognized. May we not, then, send nervous impulses through the finger-tips which may radiate to the cerebral centers of the ear, and thus excite processes resulting in something like the consciousness of music? Certainly to those who once heard, and had lost their hearing by an accident, the sensation can be more easily assimilated; in them electrical stimulations of the skin can more easily awaken a kind of cerebral music, which will remind them of what they once so much enjoyed, touching the finest strings that reach the heart; music—

'Which they have loved long since, and lost awhile.'"

Australian Bone Caves.—We are told in *The Engineering and Mining Journal* that the Wellington Caves, the earliest discovered in Australia, are remarkable for the large number of fossil remains of extinct animals found in them. "The town of Wellington, New South Wales, in the vicinity of which the caves are situated, is on the western line, about 248 miles from Sydney. The caves were discovered in 1830 by Sir Thomas L. Mitchell, the colonial surveyor-general, while engaged in making explorations for a road to open up the country. The valley in which the caves are situated is bounded on each side by hills of limestone rock, rising to a height of about 100 feet on the eastern side, and considerably higher on the other. The limestone presents a naked and rugged surface, composed of pointed, weather-worn blocks, between which are small crevices leading to caves and fissures. The Great Cave is approached by a steep and rugged entrance, and consists of a spacious and lofty vaulted chamber, ornamented by an immense stalactite. About 80 feet to the west of the Great Cave is the Breccia Cave, one of the most important and interesting, from a scientific point of view, yet discovered in Australia. It is a kind of deep pit or well, and from its small size and the difficulty of access is not much frequented by visitors. Gerard Krefft, who for several years was curator of the Sydney Museum, took much interest in the work of exploring the Breccia Cave, and under his superintendence many hundreds of fossil remains were recovered. Curiously enough, no bones of birds have yet been found. The country around Wellington has yet to be systematically explored. When this is done it is probable that further discoveries will be made, not only of fossils, but also of gold, for it was in this neighborhood that McGregor, a shepherd, obtained the auriferous metal long before the finds at Ophir had attracted public attention in New South Wales."

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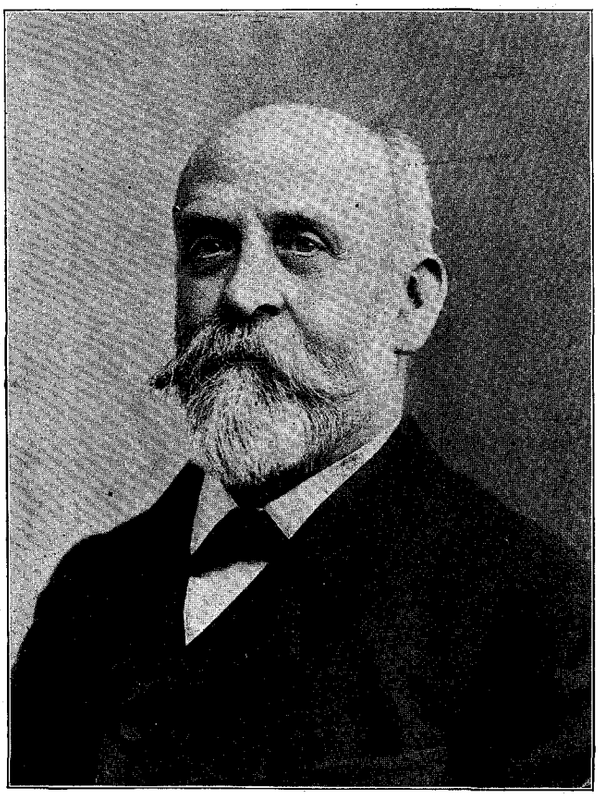
DEATH OF ALVAN G. CLARK.

ALVAN GRAHAM CLARK, telescope-maker and astronomer, died in Cambridge, Mass., on June 9, aged sixty-four years. He was the son of Alvan Clark and a member of the



ALVAN GRAHAM CLARK.

famous firm of Alvan Clark and Sons, which has done so much for American astronomy. Says *Science:*

"Astronomy is deeply indebted to the senior Alvan Clark, who died in 1887, and to his two sons. In 1859 Mr. Clark began the making of an object-glass 18½ inches in aperture, the largest that had up to that time been attempted. In 1873 the firm made the 26-inch objective for the observatory at Washington, and in 1880 the 30-inch refractor for the Imperial Observatory at St. Petersburg. These were followed by the 36-inch lens of the Lick Observatory and the recently completed 40-inch lens for the Yerkes Observatory. The making of such lenses was a scientific work of the utmost value. Mr. Clark had also made direct contributions to astronomy, including the discovery of the companion of Sirius in 1862, for which he was awarded the Lalande medal of the Paris Academy."

The Scientific American, which calls Mr. Clark "the last of the famous lens-makers," gives the following account of his death:

"Alvan G. Clark, the famous telescope-lens maker and astronomer, died suddenly of apoplexy at his home at Cambridge, Mass., on June 9. Mr. Clark had returned from Chicago two weeks before, after placing the famous objective in position in the great telescope-tube at the Yerkes Observatory, at William Bay, Wis. A short time before the trip he had a slight stroke of paralysis, but recovered in a few days."

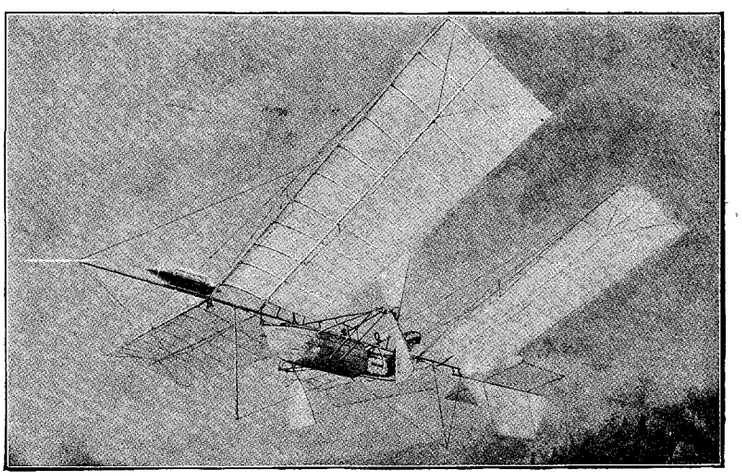
Coloration of Glass.—"The experiments of M. Lemal on the coloration of glass by direct penetration of metals or metallic salts show," says *Cosmos*, "that glass in general, and particularly that into whose composition salt enters, is susceptible of being colored directly by the application of the salts of silver, the result being a clear yellow for ordinary glass, and an orange-yellow for glass of special composition. The coloration takes place at the temperature of 550° to 600° C. [958° to 1048° F.] and is independent of the salt of silver used, depending only on the length of time of exposure to the heat and on the quantity of coloring matter in the presence of the glass. The process, which is similar to that of cementation [in the manufacture of steel], can be extended to other metals."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

A FLYING MACHINE THAT FLEW.

PROFESSOR LANGLEY'S flying-machine, we are proudly told by the inventor, is the only one that has ever flown. He does not count dirigeable balloons. To be sure no human hand directed its flight, as it sailed through the air; but it certainly flew, and he who is daring enough may construct a larger one on the same model and serve as the pioneer crew—sailor, engineer, captain, and helmsman, all in one—on a strange craft in the unexplored ocean of air. At present there are no volunteers, and Professor Langley, perhaps with a view to arousing our enthusiasm, tells in *McClure's Magazine* (June) how, when, and where he flew his weird mechanical bird. First, Professor Langley describes his now celebrated "whirling-table" experiments, which brought out the following startling facts:

"These experiments were continued for three years, with the general conclusion that by simply moving any given weight of this form fast enough in a horizontal path it was possible to sustain it with less than one twentieth of the power that Newton's rule called for. In particular it was proved that if we could insure horizontal flight without friction, about two hundred pounds of such plates could be moved through the air at the speed of an express train and sustained upon it with the expenditure of one horse-power—sustained, that is, without any gas to lighten the weight, or by other means of flotation than the air over which it is made to run, as a swift skater runs safely over thin ice, or a skipping-stone goes over water without sinking, till its speed is exhausted. . . .

"Hitherto it had always been supposed that it was wholly the lack of mechanical power to fly which made mechanical flight impossible. The first stage of the investigation had shown how much, or rather how little, power was needed in theory for the horizontal flight of a given weight, and the second stage, which was now to be entered upon, was to show first how to procure this power with as little weight as possible, and, having it, how by its means to acquire this horizontal flight in practise—that is,



THE AËRODROME IN FLIGHT: A VIEW FROM BELOW.
From *McClure's Magazine.*

how to acquire the *art* of flight or how to build a ship that could actually navigate the air."

The trouble was at first to get light enough engines; then, after these had been obtained, to make a light boiler. Then the

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frame and wings or skimming surfaces had to be made as light as consistent with the necessary strength. All this required several years of work with repeated failures. Nearly three years before the machine actually flew it could lift itself as it ran along a railroad track, but this was not what the inventor wanted. In October, 1894, the machine was nearly ready to fly, as shown in the illustrations. After many trials a launching device was adopted, capable of sending the mechanical bird off at the requisite speed from the top of a house-boat, no matter what the direction or force of the wind might be. We now quote the inventor's account of his machine in full:

"In the completed form we see two pairs of wings, each slightly curved, each attached to a long steel rod which supports them both, and from which depends the body of the machine, in which are the boilers, the engines, the machinery, and the propeller wheels, these latter being not in the position of those of an ocean steamer, but more nearly amidships. They are made sometimes of wood, sometimes of steel and canvas, and are between three and four feet in diameter.

"The hull itself is formed of steel tubing; the front portion is closed by a sheathing of metal which hides from view the fire-grate and apparatus for heating, but allows us to see a little of the coils of the boiler and all of the relatively large smoke-stack in which it ends. The conical vessel in front is an empty float, whose use is to keep the whole from sinking if it should fall in the water.

"This boiler supplies steam for an engine of between one and one and one-half horse-power, and, with its fire-grate, weighs a little over five pounds. This weight is exclusive of that of the engine, which weighs, with all its moving parts, but twenty-six ounces. Its duty is to drive the propeller wheels, which it does at rates varying from 800 to 1,200, or even more, turns a minute, the highest number being reached when the whole is speeding freely ahead.

"The rudder, it will be noticed, is of a shape very unlike that of a ship, for it is adapted both for vertical and horizontal steering. It is impossible within the limits of such an article as this, however, to give an intelligible account of the manner in which it performs its automatic function. Sufficient it is to say that it does perform it.

"The width of the wings from tip to tip is between twelve and thirteen feet, and the length of the whole about sixteen feet. The weight is nearly thirty pounds, of which about one fourth is contained in the machinery. The engine and boilers are constructed with an almost single eye to economy of weight, not of force, and are very wasteful of steam, of which they spend their own weight in five minutes. This steam might all be recondensed and the water re-used by proper condensing apparatus, but this can not be easily introduced in so small a scale of construction. With it the time of flight might be hours instead of minutes, but without it the flight (of the present aërodrome) is limited to about five minutes, tho in that time, as will be seen presently, it can go some miles; but owing to the danger of its leaving the surface of the water for that of the land, and wrecking itself on shore, the time of flight is limited designedly to less than two minutes."

Up to the 6th of May, 1896, when the first successful flight took place, the history of the "aërodrome," as Professor Langley calls it, had been one of continuous trial, failure, and modification. His account of the final triumph is interesting. He says:

"When, on that, to me, memorable afternoon the signal was given and the aërodrome sprang into the air, I watched it from the shore with hardly a hope that the long series of accidents had come to a close. And yet it had, and for the first time the aërodrome swept continuously through the air like a living thing, and as second after second passed on the face of the stop-watch, until a minute had gone by, and it still flew on, and as I heard the cheering of the few spectators, I felt that something had been accomplished at last, for never in any part of the world, or in any period, had any machine of man's construction sustained itself in the air before for even half of this brief time. Still the aërodrome went on in a rising course until, at the end of a minute and a half (for which time only it was provided with fuel and water), it had accomplished a little over half a mile, and now it settled rather than fell into the river with a gentle descent. It was immediately taken out and flown again with equal success, nor was there anything to indicate that it might not have flown indefinitely except for the limit put upon it."

Professor Langley gives the text of a letter from Alexander Graham Bell to the Institute of France confirming the facts already noted. The Professor continues:

"On November 28 I witnessed, with another aërodrome of somewhat similar construction, a rather longer flight, in which it traversed about three quarters of a mile, and descended with equal safety. In this the speed was greater, or about thirty miles an hour. . . . We may live to see airships a common sight, but habit has not dulled the edge of wonder, and I wish that the reader could have witnessed the actual spectacle. 'It looked like a miracle,' said one who saw it, and the photograph, tho taken from the original, conveys but imperfectly the impression given by the flight itself."

THE AËRODROME IN FLIGHT, MAY 6, 1896. VIEW FROM INSTANTANEOUS PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN BY A. GRAHAM BELL, ESQ.

From *McClure's Magazine.*

"What have we gained, after all, by these experiments?" Professor Langley anticipates the question and answers it in these words:

"This has been done: a 'flying-machine,' so long a type for ridicule, has really flown; it has demonstrated its practicability in the only satisfactory way—by actually flying, and by doing this again and again, under conditions which leave no doubt.

"There is no room here to enter on the consideration of the construction of larger machines, or to offer the reasons for believing that they may be built to remain for days in the air, or to travel at speeds higher than any with which we are familiar; neither is there room to enter on a consideration of their commercial value, or of those applications which will probably first come in the arts of war rather than those of peace; but we may at least see that these may be such as to change the whole conditions of warfare, when each of two opposing hosts will have its every movement known to the other, when no lines of fortification will keep out the foe, and when the difficulties of defending a country against an attacking enemy in the air will be such that we may hope that this shall hasten rather than retard the coming of the day when war shall cease."

In conclusion, Professor Langley tells us that he considers his part in the matter finished; he has invented the flying-machine and has caused it to fly; he now awaits the man who shall take up his invention and give it its practical commercial development.

Rubies by the Ton.—"Bauxite, a French mineral," says *Cosmos*, June 12, abstracting an article in *Aluminium*, "has just been used in a new and unheard-of way. For a long time, in certain industries, heated bauxite has been used to make very hard substances for the fabrication of artificial millstones to be used in the manufactures. This was intended as a substitute for the emery of Naxos, with which the Greek Government by its pretensions had little by little disgusted many merchants.

"After the first trials, instead of calcining the bauxite the idea occurred to some one to melt it, and thus was obtained a product harder still, diamantite, which was nothing else than alumina melted in the electric furnace.

"But now comes M. Gin, a very distinguished engineer and inventor, to whom it occurred to volatilize the alumina, which is

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very easily done in the electric furnace, giving rise to the thick reddish-brown clouds, so inconvenient, and so well known to M. Moissan and his followers.

"By combining certain vapors with those of alumina, which is the essential substance, M. Gin obtained rubies, not as Fremy obtained them, by pounds in a crucible, but by hundredweight and by tons. A new industrial product is thus born, such as our fathers would never have suspected, for if any one had told them that we should one day vaporize alumina—the most refractory of all substances—they would have laughed in his face.

"A curious detail: when Mr. Gin took out his patents in Germany there was a great stir. The patent office demanded to see the products. They probably expected to receive a small laboratory crucible, but M. Gin's answer was a large case of his primary products and a huge block of rubies. The astonishment of the patent officials may be imagined. The precious patent was at once sent to M. Gin.

"We are the first to be able to announce the arrival of a new French industrial product — ruby polishing-powder that will scratch even the famous carborundum."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

A NEW METHOD OF PREPARING WOOD TO RESIST DECAY.

THE following method of using the natural secretions of resinous wood to prevent its decay is described in a Swedish journal, *Elektrotekniske Tidsskrift*, from which an abstract is made in *L'Electricien*, Paris. We translate a few paragraphs below:

"Attention has recently been directed to a new method of preparing telegraph poles, railway ties, etc. The process consists simply in removing, during the spring or at the beginning of summer, the bark from the trees, from the bottom to the desired height, after which they are left alone for a year or two before they are cut down. A tree thus treated does not die at once, tho its growth is stopped, and during this struggle for life it becomes quite saturated with resin, which hardens, and little by little the trunk changes into 'candle-wood,' which is well known to resist decay wonderfully.

"The first trials of this new process were made by M. Arne Ammundsen, who conceived the idea, during his frequent walks in the forest when laying out new lines, by noticing something well known to every one accustomed to the woods, namely, that when a pine was chafed or cut in summer, resin at once issued to cover or cure the wound, and the wood around the place attacked was soon transformed into 'candle-wood.'

"To fix the height to which the trees should be stripped to be adapted for telegraph posts is a question whose solution, according to M. Ammundsen, requires a long series of trials, experience not having yet shown to what degree the stripping of a part occasions the transformation of the substance of the tree above the part stripped. Probably trees intended to serve as telegraph or telephone posts should be stripped to a point a little above the part that is to be buried in the ground. Supposing that the posts are to be buried five feet deep, then the trees ought to be stripped to at least six feet above the root.

"Having had the opportunity of seeing a specimen of the posts prepared in the manner just described, we shall watch M. Ammundsen's future experiments with interest.

"The process seems to have considerable advantages, and as the Telegraph Department will probably give M. Ammundsen aid in making continual systematic trials, we recommend the Telephone Department to make use also of the new method of preparation."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

Archeology Aided by Kites.—The number of uses of what may be called "the new kites" seems to multiply daily. The latest news is that they are to be used in an expedition to New Mexico to reach an otherwise inaccessible spot where interesting antiquarian discoveries are expected. The expedition, which is led by Prof. William Libby, of Princeton, is to go to Albuquerque, N. Mex., and then proceed as follows, according to *The Scientific American*, June 19: "In the vicinity of this place rises from the alkali plains to a height of more than 700 feet a 'mesa' or tableland of sandstone. The top of this has never been explored by white men, because the almost perpendicular walls makes its summit inaccessible even to the most experienced mountain-climbers. To students of archeology and anthropology, this tableland possesses great interest, because of the belief that it was once the home of a race of cliff-dwellers. Articles of pottery have fallen from the top of the 'mesa,' so this belief seems reasonable. Professor Libby and his party intend to explore the tableland, if it is a possible thing. They will remain in camp at its base until they are either successful or are convinced that their endeavors are useless. They intend to avail themselves of several devices to reach the top. The first idea of Professor Libby was to take a mortar with the expedition, and shoot a line over the 'mesa' at its narrowest point, where it is only a few yards wide, the method being very similar to that adopted by the life-saving service. Recently, Professor Libby became impressed with the utility of Mr. Eddy's kites, and the professor has visited Mr. Eddy relative to the matter. Professor Libby will have material for a dozen of Mr. Eddy's kites prepared. They will be constructed for use in the extremely light winds prevalent in the vicinity of the lone tableland. He will ship the mortar, cables, and other equipments for the expedition. If the cable can be successfully hauled over the 'mesa's' summit the party will rig a boatswain's chair on the cable, and thus be able to ascend to the top of the tableland."

Electric Clarification of Wine.—A new process is described by Otho Reinke in the *Wochenschrift für Brauerei*, for the clarification of fermented liquors. According to Herr Reinke, if a vessel that contains wine or beer in process of fermentation be illuminated by sunlight, either directly or after reflection from the sky or from surrounding objects, clarification rapidly takes place, all substances that cause turbidity being precipitated to the bottom of the vessel. Wine or beer not thus subjected to the action of light clarifies more slowly. The observer was led by this fact to see whether he could not get a similar effect with the electric light, and he found that he could obtain complete and rapid clarification by hanging arc-lamps near the fermenting liquors. The importance of this discovery, if it is as stated by the German journal, need not be dwelt upon.—*Translated and adapted for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

THE movable floor of the dome of Yerkes Observatory fell 45 feet on May 29, doing considerable damage to the floor and the machinery immediately connected with it. The accident will cost the observatory some money and a good deal of time. Its cause has not been announced.

DIGESTION proceeds more rapidly in the horse with active exercise than when eating is followed by a period of rest, according to the experiments of Dr. Tange of Budapest. In the dog and in man the opposite is true, which shows how unsafe it is to infer results in one animal from observations on another. Dr. Tange's researches are published in *Pflüger's Archiv*.

A PATENT has been allowed by the British Patent Office for making gold. A similar application has been made to the United States Patent Office, and the Treasury Department has undertaken to test the process. Sensational versions of this fact have appeared in some of the daily papers, but the patent has so far been withheld, and it is not probable that it will be granted.

"IT is a remarkable fact," says a contributor to *Knowledge*, London, "that the two countries which are now competing most keenly with us in the industrial race—especially in those departments allied to engineering—are Germany and the United States: two which have for many years been in the van in the matter of providing facilities for education in matters pertaining to the industrial arts. In the matter of technical education we are behind Germany now, and it is doubtful whether, on present lines, we will greatly better our position in the future; and while we rejoice in the phenomenal progress of the last sixty years, our self-congratulation is tempered by some misgivings as to the future."

M. ARLOING reports to the Paris Biological Society, according to *The Lancet*, June 12, that animal perspiration, when injected into the blood, is poisonous. When the injection was strong enough, "death almost always occurred, generally within three days, tho sometimes not for some weeks. . . . The injection of one sixth, one quarter, or one third of the lethal dose led, according to his observation, to immediate and proportional effects. The toxicity varied with the environment of the subject which furnished the perspiration as well as with the mode of preparation of the extract. The perspiration secreted during arduous muscular toil is richer in toxic principles than that secreted during the ordinary circumstances of life, the degree of extra malignancy amounting to 25 or 30 per cent. All things being equal, perspirations obtained by artificial means present a minimum of toxicity, but perspiration obtained from a subject who has suffered from retention of the secretion due to cold is poisonous."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

RELIGIOUS THOUGHT IN THE VICTORIAN ERA.

QUEEN VICTORIA began her reign two years after Strauss's "Leben Jesu" appeared, three years after the death of Coleridge, and five years after the death of Sir Walter Scott. These three names, says Principal A. M. Fairbairn, of Mansfield College, Oxford, England, "represent potent factors of change and movement in the realm both of thought and theology." Scott, we are told, contributed a larger share than any other one person to that "apotheosis of medievalism" which had the Oxford Tractarians for its high priests. Coleridge was the father, in England, of the transcendental philosophy which has done so much to fertilize theology. And "Leben Jesu" was the occasion that called into existence the newer criticism.

With this opening, Principal Fairbairn proceeds (*The Independent*, June 17) to give a rapid historical summary of the conditions of religious thought in 1837 and of the controversies, first, on the question of church and state, in which Newman and Thomas Arnold were the opposing leaders; second, on the old question between Calvinists and Arminians and that between Socinians and Evangelicals. He speaks admiringly of the influence of Maurice, as also of that of Robertson; touches on the work of Dean Stanley and Jowett in the realm of biblical criticism; recognizes "the excellent services, ethical and spiritual," rendered by John Stuart Mill, in his modification of the philosophy of utilitarianism; and acknowledges the "very extensive influence in modifying dogmatism" exerted by Herbert Spencer, who, however, we are further told, learned all he knew of philosophy from Hamilton and Dean Mansel, and whose fundamental philosophy has never recovered from the criticism of it by Prof. T. H. Green. We quote now what Principal Fairbairn has to say of religious conditions to-day, in contrast with those of the first half of the century:

"The forces generated in the early portion of the reign, and active in the middle, may be seen working under changed forms and in new combinations toward the end. The most remarkable fact is, as it were, the complete change in the theological outlook. Theology has been lifted out of the old controversies which perplexed her for centuries, and compelled to change the dogmatic formulæ which were the watchwords or the rival schools. The questions at issue between Calvinism and Arminianism have lost their actuality. The principles on which they were based can hardly be said to live in the religious mind of to-day. The conception of Deity has undergone too radical a revolution to permit the absolute sovereignty in which the one gloried and the limited sovereignty by which the other would fain have displaced it, to be conceived as ultimate truths concerning God. The question at issue with the Socinian may also be regarded as at an end. When the reign opened it was the Atonement; now that the reign is drawing to a close the question has been simplified and approaches much more nearly a problem as to the forms under which the natural and the supernatural must be respectively conceived. Among the heroic speculative and religious figures of the reign, that of James Martineau will always occupy a conspicuous place. He has been, possibly, the most eloquent writer on philosophical theology the reign has known; certainly, as an Anglican friend once remarked to me, he is the man who in our age most nearly approaches Novalis's description of Spinoza as 'a God-intoxicated man.' He has pleaded for theistic belief, for the intuitive knowledge of God, for the authority of his moral law, for the dignity and the independence of the religious life, with a cogency which all men must feel, a sincerity, a dignity, and a conviction which all men must honor. But it may be said that the points of affinity between what we may still call the Evangelical and the Socinian have become at once much fewer and much more intimate than of old. When the reign opened Unitarians and Trinitarians were alike in their belief as to the authority of the Scriptures, as to the possibility and reality of the major Christian miracles, notably the resurrection, as to the unique and transcendent quality of the character of Christ; but he would be a brave man who would affirm that in these respects there is agreement to-day. On the other hand, as regards the mode under which we ought to think of God, of His action in relation to man, and the authority of His moral law over men, the affinity is more intimate, the agreement more real and more marked. . . .

"On the whole, however, we may say that there is a much greater sense of the solidarity of the churches. Men are coming to feel that the thinker who belongs to any single church is the possession and the strength of all; and the churches to recognize that truth is greater than sect and that there is no interest which is common to all the churches greater than the discovery of the truth. There is also something like a common consensus of bodies as to the sources whence all derive their being and as to the sovereign authority which all are bound to obey. In the midst of much that is distracting as to the antagonism of sects, as to the political and social conflict of churches, this great sense of common position, common duty, common interest, and common end is an endowment of almost infinite promise. There is a hopefulness in the quest after truth greater than was known in the days of the old dogmatism. He who studies the literature of sixty years ago and compares it with the literature of to-day will feel that during the reign of Queen Victoria we have got nearer the heart of things and thus nearer the souls of each other, and that when the end of the next century is as near as the end of this now is, churches may be fewer, but Christianity will be larger; that men will have recovered more of the spirit of Christ and will, therefore, have realized more of the unity which He desired for His church and have found more of the freedom which He promised to give by means of His truth."

AMONG THE COPTIC CHRISTIANS.

OF the remnants of early Oriental Christianity that managed to survive the Moslem propaganda of fire and the sword, the Copts of Egypt constitute an instructive specimen. A bright German traveler recently made a study of these peculiar people, and what he saw and heard is reported in the *Warte des Tempels*, whence we glean the following data:

The Copts are the descendants of the old Monophysites, but are no longer aware of their historical antecedents. Their numerical strength is computed at 40,000. They have their churches and cloisters in Alexandria, Cairo, and throughout Upper Egypt. These structures have in recent years turned out to be regular storehouses of old Christian literature, and no doubt yet contain many valuable treasures of this kind. Among recent discoveries of this kind are the Gospel and the Apocalypse of Peter, a gnostic work antedating Irenæus, containing three valuable documents.

The Christianity of the Copts of our day is at low ebb, a type inferior to it being found among the Abyssinians alone. Services in the Coptic churches are carried on without any dignity whatever. During the services the audience walk around in the church at pleasure, talk and laugh, and even at times engage in fistic encounters. In one of the large Coptic churches where I was often present, a young Copt was accustomed to sit down at my side and explain to me in French or English everything that was transpiring; and this disturbance the officiating lector or priest did not seem to notice.

The locality for the ordinary priestly functions is a raised platform; but back of this, separated by a partition and portière and separated from the rest of the church, is a special room in which is placed the altar and where the Holy of Holies, the *Hekel*, is found. This room none dare enter except the priest. Here the altar services proper take place, *e.g.*, the consecration of the elements. Here, too, the priest retires to change his garments, in accordance with the demands of Oriental taste, for the various different acts of the service. The priest's garments are thoroughly Oriental, including a turban and fez. They are distinguished from the Mohammedans by the dark colors of their garments. Coptic women wear the veil, as do Mohammedan. The women attend services much more rarely than the men do, and when they do attend, must take their place in a section of the

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church partitioned off in such a way that the men can not see them. When the Copt enters the church it is the custom to kiss the hand of the priests, who generally are seated near the door.

The church language is the Coptic, the characters of which are a mixture of Greek letters with elements of the old Egyptian "Demotic" writing. The language is no longer understood by the common people, and by only few of the priests, they all speaking Arabic, the language of modern Egypt.

The Lord's Supper is celebrated frequently by the Copts. Even the children are allowed to partake of it. These receive the bread dipped in wine. It is but rarely that the laymen receive also the wine in the Holy Supper, and this is permitted only after a preparatory confessional service. Of the communion bread every one present at the service receives, at the close, a small piece to take home to his friends who were not at the service. This recalls the custom of the early church.

The Copts are, as a rule, friendly to strangers. When I informed them that I was a graduate in theology, they at once urged me to preach to them either in French or in English. Later on, when I attended their services more frequently, they asked if I would join their communion. Then they asked to have me introduced to the Patriarch. Upon my complying, a number of them accompanied me to the largest Coptic church of Cairo, by the side of which stood the palace of their head of the church. The Patriarch received me sitting upon his throne. He was surrounded by servants and members of the Coptic church. The Patriarch spoke only Arabic, and accordingly the services of a dragoman were necessary. After partaking of coffee and wine, we began to speak of church affairs. In answer to the question, why the Coptic Church stood aloof from all other Christian communions, he replied that he would be thankful if I would give him the reason. He evidently did not know why. Upon my explanation of the origin of Monophysitism he thanked me warmly, and expressed the hope that all the churches of the earth would be united. He dismissed me with his blessing.

This visit, as also a close study of Coptic Christianity, which is consumed in ceremonies and external formalism, without spirituality and life, make a sad impression. Only the power of the living Gospel will be able to instil life again into these dry bones of an historic but decayed and petrified church.

PROFESSOR ELY ON THE CHRISTIANITY NEEDED TO-DAY.

NO writer of the day has done more, and perhaps none so much, to emphasize the social duties of the Christian believer as Prof. Richard T. Ely, of the University of Wisconsin. As a teacher, a writer, and a public lecturer, Professor Ely has been engaged for years in an effort to awaken the churches to their duty in regard to various social problems. He has commanded a larger hearing among church people than most writers on social and economic topics, because of the reverent tone of his writings and the earnest and devoted Christian spirit animating all his work. These characteristics are specially observable in his latest volume on "The Social Law of Service," in which he treats of social duty from the standpoint of Christian teaching. In a recent contribution to *The Ram's Horn* (Chicago) Professor Ely gives a very clear and succinct statement of his views in reply to the question "What is the kind of Christianity now needed?" He says:

"The recognition of our social duties is the first step. How recognize them? Look and see! But to look and see implies the seeing eye. We may also say, Listen and hear! for duties come to us likewise through hearing. But hearing implies the hearing ear. But we must do more than see and hear. A perception of duties is not enough. Duties must be felt, and that implies the feeling heart. But even this is not enough. Back of feeling there must be power to produce action. What will give the seeing eye, the hearing ear, the feeling heart, and the motive power to produce needed action? One force and one alone is sufficient, and that force is found in positive Christianity.

"Positive Christianity is the Christianity of Christ. Negative Christianity is the Christianity of men. Negative Christianity we see about us in abundance. It refrains from evil and maintains respectability. It eschews zeal and engages in no warfare with evil. It doubts the existence of serious and social evils. Positive Christianity having eyes and ears perceives wretched social conditions all about us. It knows what vile tenements signify and is aware of the enormous extent of the housing problem. Positive Christianity sees degraded childhood and lost opportunities on every side. Positive Christianity remembers that blindness is sin, that neglect is sin. 'Inasmuch as ye did it not,' is the condemnation of negative Christianity. Positive Christianity goes out into the streets with the seeing eye and the hearing ear; it visits jails and cries out against our monstrous compulsory schools of crime. It visits hospitals and almshouses and is filled with righteous indignation at public abuses.

"When Christianity becomes positive, that is, when our professed Christianity becomes real Christianity, we will witness a mighty turning and overturning in our social life. It is marvelous how Christ hit at once on the social evils of this day and how terrible His denunciation of prayer and public worship as a substitute for service and an atonement of theft of widows' homes. 'Ye shall receive the greater damnation.' And the Apostle James had an eye for a great social evil, viz., withheld wages, and no anarchist was ever severer: 'Go to now, ye rich men, weep and howl.' This was the outcome of Christianity of a positive sort.

"Our social duties will be perceived, they will engage our attention and command our best services, when our Christianity becomes positive."

SEPARATE CHURCHES FOR THE NEGROES.

THE Southern Presbyterian General Assembly at its recent session at Charlotte, N. C., decided to allow the colored people belonging to that denomination to withdraw from the white churches, to form separate and independent congregations, and to hold independent presbyteries, synods, and general assemblies. The Rev. Dr. Williams (colored), president of the seminary of Abbeville, S. C., made a plea in behalf of a separate church for his people. He said: "We do not request you to turn us out, but we want you to allow us to withdraw and organize a church of our own." This was accordingly done. Writing of this action in an editorial note, *The Lutheran Observer* (Philadelphia) says:

"We are inclined to think that this is the most practicable plan, under all the circumstances. Altho under the Gospel there is 'neither Jew nor Greek, barbarian, Scythian, bond or free,' but all are one in Christ; yet when there are enough of one nationality or language to form a congregation, it is generally more agreeable for them to worship separately by themselves. But where the number is too small to form separate congregations it is practically necessary that they should worship with their white brethren, and to this there should be no objection on the part of either."

The Independent (undenom., New York) speaks of the division made by the Southern Assembly as the setting up of a new denomination, which it earnestly deprecates. It will add one more to the branches of the Presbyterian family, making the total number of denominations having the Presbyterian name thirteen. *The Independent* says that this setting apart of the colored Presbyterians as a separate and distinct religious body had been a foregone conclusion for years. "It was the end the church (Southern Presbyterian) had in view before the foundations of its negro work were laid." *The Independent* continues:

"The new church has 48 ministers, 64 churches, and 1,504 communicants. The ministers have been well trained, the members are doubtless intelligent, and the churches well organized; but it is a small beginning, leaving ample room, it may be said, for growth. There are four presbyteries, one having been dissolved because it lost its quorum. There is no synod yet. It has been the purpose of the church to organize one. Sufficient funds were raised, but two of the colored presbyteries did not think last year that the time had come. Are they now convinced that there should be not only a synod but a General Assembly?

"The experiment is a doubtful one. The growth, under the

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fostering care of the church, has been slow. A white minister has admirably superintended the work, and considerable money has been contributed to it. Will it increase faster under an independent organization? We see no reason for such an expectation. It would have been better, it seems to us, to turn these colored churches over to the Northern presbyteries in the South. They have a much larger colored constituency and would have warmly welcomed the Southern churches and ministers.

"We do not like the idea of racial churches. God made all of one blood. His church feels authorized to set up a difference."

The Central Presbyterian (Southern Presbyterian, Richmond) contains the following editorial reference to the matter:

"The action of the General Assembly as to an independent Presbyterian church for the colored people is of great interest. The action is not final, but appoints a committee, with the moderator, Dr. Goetchius, as chairman, to confer with the presbyteries of colored people, now in connection with our church. These presbyteries are themselves not at all unanimous in desiring the separation. The plan of our church's work among the colored people anticipates such an independent organization, and it has been only a question of development of their churches and presbyteries to such a degree of strength as would justify the separation. There is no question as to the sympathy of our church with their work, and, if organized separately, that sympathy will not be lessened, nor the assistance given decreased."

The editor of *The Southwestern Presbyterian* (New Orleans), in summing up the work of the Assembly at Charlotte, says with reference to the action taken on the colored churches:

"We went to the Assembly, persuaded that the time had not come to carry out our immemorial policy on the subject, and convinced that the initiative must come from them, if it came at all at this juncture. It will be seen that the majority of their preachers have asked it, and so the Assembly arranged for the separation. We have never felt that our Southern church has done her full duty by the freedman. The stereotyped answer to the question in our narrative blanks has been: 'Nothing done—they prefer their own churches and preachers.' There was a refreshing candor as well as agreeable variety in the reply of one of the churches of New Orleans presbytery: 'We have left them to work for their own salvation after their own devices.' It is to be hoped that our people generally will now rally to the support of Tuskaloosa, and colored evangelization. If this is not done, one of two things will inevitably happen: as a church, they will become extinct, or be absorbed in the Northern Presbyterian Church."

HAS DARWINISM DESTROYED THE ARGUMENT FROM DESIGN?

IN the face of the Darwinian theory, and the account it gives of the pedigree of life, are we any longer entitled to entertain the notion that a more than human intelligence has anywhere or in any way contributed to the making of what now exists? This is the question which F. C. S. Schiller sets himself to answer in *The Contemporary Review* (June). His answer is an affirmative one: we are entitled to entertain such a notion. So far from having destroyed the argument from design, the theory of organic evolution materially strengthens it, and even that form of the theory known as Darwinism has indirectly strengthened it.

Before the argument from design has any theological value, Mr. Schiller points out, two things must be shown: (1) that intelligence has been at work; and then (2) that the intelligence has *not* been that of any of the admitted existences. There is a gap here which the theologian's logic is apt to leap across blindly. And on the other hand a denial of the argument from design logically involves a denial of the efficacy of all intelligence in producing the results we see about us. The mechanical view of the universe must, to be consistent, rule out human intelligence, as well as divine, as having no effect upon the course of nature.

The old argument from design had several weak points apart from the attacks of Darwinism. It argued from the existence of adaptation to the existence of an adapter; and as the adaptations were so wonderful the adapter must be divine. But when it was pointed out that these adaptations were in many cases far from perfect,—when Helmholtz, for instance, showed that the eye had optical defects that could easily have been remedied, the defender of the argument was at a loss to answer. Moreover, it was not shown that the adaptations might not have been constructed by animal intelligence; it was assumed that the intelligence must be divine, and this assumption, in view of the "fiendish ingenuity" with which some of these adaptations were constructed for purposes of injury, was maintained at a ruinous expense to the divine benevolence.

Darwin did not deny the existence of an adapter; but his method was to show that such an existence was not necessary to account for the facts. To do this he required but two of the postulates of his theory, (1) the existence of variability in living organisms, and (2) the struggle for existence among them, leading to the survival of the fitter. These variations Darwin assumed to be indefinitely large in number, and the sifting process as viewed by him was entirely mechanical, and would have acted equally as well upon automata devoid of intelligence. If variation and natural selection are the alpha and omega of the matter, there is no place for any sort of argument from design, and Mr. Schiller then proceeds to show why they are not the alpha and omega of the matter.

In the first place, if intelligence is dispensed with as a factor in survival, if it has no survival-value, how comes it to be developed at all, since on the Darwinian assumptions no qualities can be developed except those which have survival-value? But if intelligence be admitted as a factor in evolution, there arises at least a possibility that other intelligence than that known to us may have been operative in the world's history.

In the second place, is it true that the variations are "indefinite" and "accidental" as assumed? Is it true that the causes of the variations must remain unknown? Darwinism has no answer when one asks, as Professor Cope has asked, what the *origin* of the fittest was, or, as President Schurman asks, how do you account for the *arrival* as well as the *survival* of the fittest? And the indefinite variations in every direction are not proved. Living organisms are subject to the general physical and chemical laws of nature, which render variations in certain directions practically impossible. Such factors as the force of gravity, the degree of temperature, the food supply, help to determine both what sort of variations can occur and in what directions organisms may vary. If these are admitted as factors, the mechanical conception of the universe is at once weakened and a purposive direction of the course of variation made at least possible.

In the third place, Darwinism does not explain the very thing it was invented to explain, viz., organic evolution itself. There is nothing in it to account for the origination of species. The Darwinian factors only state certain conditions under which organisms have evolved; but they contain nothing that would necessarily cause them to evolve. They simply state that natural selection is a general condition under which all life exists, *whether it evolves or not*. It is equally applicable to species which change and species which do not. At this point we quote the writer's words:

"And further, not only are the Darwinian factors perfectly compatible with a changeless persistence of species, but they are equally well satisfied by change in a direction which is the reverse of that which is actually found to prevail. For not merely progressive evolution but also degeneration may come about under the impartial operation of variability and natural selection. Under certain circumstances the more lowly organized may be the fitter—*i.e.*, the better adapted to cope with the conditions of life that prevail at the time, and then the higher must either die out or degenerate. Hence biologists are familiar with countless instances of degeneration everywhere. We ourselves are degen-

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erate in far more obvious and undeniable ways than sensationalists like Nordau contend. We have lost our fur—all except a few patches on the head—our ancestral tails, our sturdy claws and prehensile toes, the tapering tips of our ears and the graceful power of attentively pricking them up; the vermiform appendix indeed remains as a joy to the evolutionist and the operator, but to the patient the useless and dangerous relic of a *damnosa hereditas*. And all this degeneration has taken place under the action of natural selection.

"Not but what there has also been much progression, and that in the aggregate its amount has far exceeded that of degeneration. That is just the reason why we speak of the history of life as an evolution. Life has been on the whole progressive; but progress and retrogression have both been effected under the law of natural selection. How, then, can the credit of that result be ascribed to natural selection? Natural selection is equally ready to bring about degeneration or to leave things unchanged. How, then, can it be that which determines which of the three possible and actual cases shall be realized? Let us grant that natural selection is a permanent condition of life, from which no beings can at any time escape. But for that very reason it can not be a principle of differentiation which decides which of the alternate courses the evolution of life will in fact pursue. It can not be natural selection that causes one species to remain stationary, another to degenerate, a third to develop into a higher form. The constant pressure which natural selection exercises on organisms does not in the least explain the actual course of evolution any more than the constant pressure of the atmosphere determines the direction in which we walk. The cause of the particular changes which have led to the existing forms of life can not be found in an unchanging law of all life; it must be sought in forces whose intermittent action has made an instrument of natural selection.

"It is clear, then, that to explain the changes which have resulted in the existing forms of life *some variable factor has to be added to natural selection*. And as to the nature of that factor Darwinism, *quâ* Darwinism, tells us nothing."

And since Darwinism tells us nothing, it is not, when properly understood, necessarily hostile to the argument from design. It is hostile only when its assumptions are accepted, not as mere working hypotheses, but as facts. Mr. Schiller concludes as follows:

"But in itself evolution is not necessarily bound to be mechanical; it is perfectly possible to regard it as the gradual working of a divine purpose. And once we adopt the evolutionist standpoint, it is clear that the argument from design is materially and perceptibly strengthened. (1) Positively, because evolutionism lets us as it were behind the scenes and shows us how means are adapted to ends in the gradual process of evolution. This renders easier and more comprehensible the belief underlying all teleology in a power that intelligently adapts means to ends. (2) Negatively, evolutionism greatly weakens the objection to the teleological argument based on the imperfection of existing adaptations. We are no longer compelled to proclaim everything already perfect; it suffices that we can find nourishment for the faith that everything is being made perfect.

"If, then, evolutionism strengthens the argument from design, the latter indirectly owes a debt of gratitude to the theories which have led to the general adoption of the evolutionist standpoint. And among these Darwinism stands preeminent. Evolutionism was as old as one of the earliest of Greek philosophies; but it was not until Darwinism made it a household word that it could force its way into the consciousness of men at large. And as a philosopher who regards evolutionism in some form as affording the most hopeful method of approaching the mystery of existence, I am inclined to hold that when historical perspective has cleared away the mole-hills we have made into mountains, it will be here that will be found Darwin's most momentous and enduring service to knowledge and to mankind."

THE pastor of the Seventh-day Baptist Church in Haaden, Holland, has a "Gospel cart" which is drawn around the city, publishing scriptural truths to the people and circulating literature wherever it goes. It is painted white, and bears inscriptions in blue, mostly scriptural passages. It is furnished with drawers containing literature and other necessary things—the literature is for sale or distribution.

RELIGIOUS NEEDS IN RURAL DISTRICTS OF NEW ENGLAND.

TWO articles appeared in a recent number of *The Atlantic Monthly* descriptive of the existing conditions of country life in the New England States. The descriptions were far from flattering in any respect. According to these writers, there has been a marked and decided deterioration in the intellectual, moral, and religious status of the rural population of New England. In one of the communities pictured, special prominence is given to the decrease of church attendance and the apparent decay of faith among the people. The social evil is said to be alarmingly prevalent. Idleness, shiftlessness, and improvidence are vices which prevail to a marked and unusual degree. *The Congregationalist* calls attention to these articles with the editorial query, "What is the remedy?" In answer to this it says:

"First, a better educated ministry. The idea has become too prevalent that a man or woman may be sufficiently equipped to be a minister for a country church by a short course of study or none at all. Is it claimed that educated men can not live on the small salaries which can be raised by such churches? Then we need a more consecrated ministry of educated men—men brave and devoted enough to suffer privation for Christ's sake till they can create the larger constituency which will give them reasonable support.

"Next, the number of churches in many country towns needs to be reduced. A community of a thousand people is ordinarily worse off with four or five churches than with only one. Each one of four ministers in such a place, struggling to hold together his little congregation, often becomes less than a fourth of a minister in ambition, opportunity, the fruit of his labor, and the respect in which he is held. Is it claimed that denominational rivalries will not permit the consolidation of churches in these places? The need is great enough not only to lift educated ministers to a height of consecration sufficient to do large service on small salaries, but to move lay Christians to sacrifice what is often little more than a name that they may join in one church for worship and work. The solemn question which many a redeemed soul in a morally decaying town ought to put to himself and his neighbors is, How can we save our own community? In the effort to answer that question these suggestions can not fail to come before them.

"Once more, the methods of worship and work must be adopted which best suit the people. In many places where church attendance is meager it is not difficult to gather larger numbers into the Sunday-school, while Christian Endeavor societies are popular centers of religious life. Let the minister and his fellow laborers make these services the best possible. If formal prayer and sermon are not attractive, let worship and teaching become informal. No prescribed order of church service is divine. The Sunday-school hour may take on the dignity and value of the church meeting, and in some places may wisely be substituted for it. A strongly led Bible class may hold together adults who fall away from the regular church services. The best ways for people to get religion are the ways in which they most readily seek it. Some men who will not pray in meeting will do a Christly service to a neighbor in need. Recognize that as religious. To visit the widows and fatherless in their affliction is pure religion. All work for the uplifting of the community may take on the character of service to God with the wise cooperation of those who love God supremely."

RELIGIOUS NOTES.

CONCERNING the organic union of the Northern and Southern churches the Northern Presbyterian Assembly passed the following resolution: "We reiterate our readiness to take active steps toward such union as the Lord in His providence shall open the way."

IN Turkey, the American Board of Foreign Missions (Congregationalists) began to work seventy-three years ago. During this period it has sent to that country 700 missionaries, and expended on their maintenance more than $8,500,000. At present it has in the field a staff of 176 missionaries from America, with 878 native helpers, of whom 100 are preachers; and connected with the board are 125 churches with 12,787 members, and an aggregate adherence of 30,000.

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FROM FOREIGN LANDS.

SPANISH VIEWS ON PRESENT CONDITION OF THE CUBAN REBELLION.

A CALMER spirit prevails in Spain, for the United States Senate has acted as peace-maker. Premier Canovas managed to convince the country that America would not be so warlike if the Opposition did not create the impression that Spain would be "a house divided against itself" in case of a war with the United States. Sagasta, under these circumstances, refused to take office, and Parliament has been sent home, most likely for the rest of the year, as the Government has sufficient funds for current expenses, including the Cuban struggle. The press, too, is more calm, but there is a firm determination to resist the United States. The *Lucha*, Havana, advises Americans to study the character of foreign nations, in order to learn that money is no recompense for national honor, and that people outside of the United States do not sell their honor. The *Comercio* wonders what kind of an army the United States would have to keep up if she was threatened with war every time a citizen of a foreign country is killed in America. Most people in Spain are convinced that the United States is anxious to try a bout with Spain, and that they have no fear of the result, as the difference in wealth and population is so very great. Yet the Spanish press is anxious to find a more weighty reason for the attitude of the United States than mere jingoism. The *Imparcial*, Madrid, explains matters as follows:

"Those members of Congress who sympathize with the insurgents have made up their mind to oppose the President in his tariff policy unless he humors them with regard to belligerency. McKinley must choose between his protection tariff and his peaceful attitude toward Spain. The danger is, of course, great that he will sacrifice everything to save his tariff. The relief fund is only the beginning of further action on the part of the United States. The second step is the offer of mediation. Further interference will follow. There is a colonial party in the United States, which aims at the annexation of Cuba, Hawaii, and other islands."

The *Correspondencia* says:

"The people are restless in the United States, on account of the corruption which is, for instance, very apparent in the present scandalous deal between the sugar trust and the Senate. Something must be done to turn public attention in another direction, and a war would be welcome. There are, of course, a number of sensible publications which warn against this aggressive policy. They understand that the United States can not hope to obtain any concessions without war, and they are well aware that the country is hardly prepared for such a struggle. Many people believe that Spain will ultimately consent to sell the island of Cuba, altho it is not quite clear how this groundless belief originated."

The Madrid *Heraldo*, whose aim has been to get at the exact truth regarding Cuba, publishes the following statement, which has been regarded as pretty nearly correct by most European papers:

"In the four Western provinces, which General Weyler regards now as sufficiently pacified to introduce reforms, about 8,300 insurgents are still under arms; fifteen hundred of these are in Pinar del Rio. They are mere bandits, badly armed and organized. Two thousand are in Havana. These are well organized and armed, and they are all mounted. In Matanzas hardly 800 rebels can be found. In fact, Matanzas knows of the insurrection only by hearsay, while Havana is reminded of the presence of the rebels by the frequent burning and plundering of homes. Maximo Gomez is in the mountains of the province of Villas, where the rebels are some 4,000 strong. They are, to all accounts, very comfortable. Gomez has a body guard of 150 men, all mounted. His tactics are still the same; he relies chiefly upon his spies. When he is informed of the approach of a Spanish force, he sends some of his men to attack them, and to retire at once, leading the Spaniards in the wrong direction, which gives him time to escape.

"In Camaguey and Oriente the rebels are as yet undisturbed. Calixto Garcia has there 5,000 men, 600 of whom are mounted. Three other chiefs have 600, 400, and 200 each. The inhabitants of these provinces are themselves rebels, and assist the insurrection.

"The Spanish army has been increased to 160,000 men during the past two years. Seventeen thousand five hundred of these have died, either killed in battle or from fever; 12,100 have been invalided home; 14,300 are still in hospital in Cuba. Thus the total loss is 43,900 men, leaving 116,100.

"The tobacco harvest, formerly 560,000 hundredweights in Pinar del Rio, was only 135,000 hundredweights in 1896. It will not be more than 25,000 to 30,000 in 1897. The deficit in the local budget of Cuba is 49,000,000 pesetas ($9,800,000) this year. The war costs $7,000,000 per month and the extra expenses of the fleet are $600,000 per month. The rebellion makes necessary the employment of many additional officials, whose salaries are $80,000 per month. Spain, therefore, has to expend annually $92,500,000 to retain Cuba. The army has not been fully paid for a year, six months' pay being due to the men."

Spain has, however, enormous resources, and could realize thousands of millions of dollars if pressed. The immense wealth of the church in Spain has not yet been touched. Many Conservatives would be willing to release Cuba, if only they were satisfied that a majority of the Cuban people wanted independence. Señor Silvela recently remarked in a Conservative meeting: "If it were true that the struggle in Cuba is a war for the conquest of a people who are united in their determination to oppose Spain, then we could not hope to succeed, and ought to have released Cuba a year ago." It seems certain that a change of policy will be effected before the coming winter. The Liberal *Globo*, however, contends that General Weyler must be given a chance to fulfil his promises, tho he does not seem to progress very fast. The paper says:

"General Weyler promised to restore peace within two years. He has now been in Cuba seventeen months, and has used every means known to him through his experience of a former rising, but without great success. The enemy remains invisible, and is never surprised in his strongholds. Meanwhile the troops suffer terribly. Two battalions under General Setano, which went to Cuba 800 strong, have been reduced to 350 and 400 men."

The *Epoca* points out that General Weyler did not make rash promises, and that his work was progressing favorably when the United States, fearing that the rebellion would be crushed, added new fuel to the flame.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

Canada's Progress under Queen Victoria.—"In respect for herself, in respect for the empire of which she forms a part, in respect for honor and virtue, in respect for the righteousness which exalteth a nation," says John A. Cooper, editor of *The Canadian Magazine*, "Canada stands an easy first among the colonies of Great Britain. Blessed with a climate which conduces to vigorous mental and physical manhood, with a natural wealth unequalled by what has been given to any other country on the globe, and with a vast extent of territory which may yet hold a hundred millions of people, she possesses prospects which most of the nations of the earth might envy, and not prospects only—for the record of her progress during the present century, and especially during the Victorian era, shows that her wealth has increased a hundredfold. New provinces have been built where, in 1837, there were only trees and wild animals and the unprogressive red-man. Towns and cities have sprung up all over the best portion of this British part of North America. Many miles of canals, thousands of miles of railways, and tens of thousands of miles of good wagon roads, have been built, and the land is full of the hum of commerce. Ships have been built and rebuilt, and Canada's commercial navy ranks fifth in the vessel tonnage of the world. Where in 1831 there were a million of

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people, there are now over five million. In 1837 her total trade was less than thirty million per year; now it is over two hundred million. In 1837 there were fifteen miles of railroad, and now there are over fifteen thousand, with yearly earnings of about fifty million of dollars. In 1837 British North America consisted of a half-dozen isolated colonies with no connection or sympathy. Now all these, with several new and important communities (but excepting Newfoundland), are numbered under one government, with a growing unity of sympathy, aim, and national feeling, and blessed with a system of government—federal, provincial, and municipal—which is unequaled anywhere."

IN THE FAR EAST.

THE observant onlooker in the Far East discovers that the blood-letting administered to China by Japan has had a beneficial effect upon that ancient state. China's weakness has, in a large measure, been attributed to her decentralization. The viceroys of the different provinces maintained separate military, naval, and civil establishments, and were unable to combine their forces when necessary. The Kobe *Herald* points out that the lessons of the war are being acted upon slowly but surely. The paper says:

"The shifting of the centers of political control is proceeding steadily. Provincial armies are giving way to imperial armies—provincial fleets to imperial fleets. The Emperor is being made stronger and the viceroys are being made weaker. China has escaped becoming openly what she was rapidly becoming in reality, a mere congeries of kingdoms, easily manipulated by foreign powers, instead of remaining the flabby and colossal empire, needing a vast deal more massage than she has yet had, to stir up a healthy and vigorous circulation in her congested system. . . . It is remarkable that the old question of the general government and of state rights which distracted the people of the United States should, after all, have been an old question in China in the pulling and hauling which has been going on and is still going on between centralism and provincialism."

While China is quietly preparing to regain her lost prestige and power, Russia and Japan are getting ready for the struggle for mastery in the Far East. Now and then the Japanese deplore that their Island Empire should be forced into this rivalry with the Northern colossus. *The Japan Times*, Tokyo, thinks it is not absolutely necessary that Russia and Japan should come to blows. The two countries could settle their difficulties peaceably, and walk hand-in-hand. The Yokohama *Gazette*, however, thinks this is useless insincerity on the part of the official paper. *The Gazette* says:

"Japan and Russia are competitors for a prize the possession of which is of vital importance to them both. They can not both be masters of the Pacific. . . . Japan may so predominate in strength that her supremacy will be assured without firing a shot. But it will be none the less a struggle, and no one will be deceived by a few feeble phrases as to the ultimate object to which Japan aspires."

Meanwhile another power is anxious to restore her lost prestige in the Far East. England, who claims the mastery of the sea as her inalienable right, is searching the coast of Eastern Asia for spots which will insure her naval supremacy there as much as in the waters of Southern Europe. The English press assures Japan that Japanese interests can only be advanced if England has a strong foothold in the Far East. *The St. James's Gazette* says:

"There can be little doubt that the interests of the British Empire are very nearly allied to those of Japan in these regions. . . . England refused to take part in the coercion of the victor, and so created an impression in that country in our favor that will not be easily eliminated. Since then Japan has practically given up everything for which she fought. . . . Russian soldiers, as Mrs. Bishop recently explained in our columns, will drill the Korean troops, and Russia will do with the country just as she likes. Thus, without firing a shot, Russia has obtained for herself by diplomatic means all the advantages for which Japan fought once, and for which—as there seems every reason to believe—she will fight again when she is strong enough.

"And our own position in China, how does that stand? Very nearly the same as that of Japan. We can not disguise the fact that Russian influence is paramount in the great empire. . . . We could watch the rising ascendency of Russia in the councils of Peking with more equanimity if we, too, had a fortified port and station a thousand miles or so north of Hongkong and somewhere near the entrance to the Gulf of Pe-chi-li. If the Yellow Sea is to be the Mediterranean of the future—the naval cockpit of the world—we must secure our Malta and Gibraltar in good time."

PROGRESS OF EVENTS IN GREECE AND TURKEY.

THE peace negotiations carried on between Turkey on the one hand and the six powers as guardians of Greece on the other seem to be progressing favorably, tho slowly. Informed by the powers most friendly to her that she can not retain all Thessaly, Turkey has consented to be satisfied with the small district north of the Peneios. Henceforth, therefore, only details have to be arranged. England will not persist in obstructing the work by exaggerated demands in favor of Greece, especially as public opinion in Great Britain is beginning to realize that England's influence in the East is seriously jeopardized by her opposition to the rest of the powers. A correspondent of the London *Standard* has been extensively quoted on the subject, and as his article has been used even by the Radical press to excuse a change of policy, we summarize it. "Spectator" says, in effect:

The Cretan imbroglio came as a Godsend to the Sultan, for it has shut the mouths of the "concert" on the subject of massacres and reforms. They failed to prevent Vassos's landing in Greece, failed to eject him when once there, failed to prevent the Greek war preparations and provocations. The German Emperor alone, utterly disgusted at the impotence of Europe, wished Greece so condignly punished as to prevent any other small state from following her atrocious example. The concert has degenerated into a machine for officially confirming and registering the diplomatic moves of the various powers, principally Russia and Germany. The part played by England is quite a secondary one, and it can not be well otherwise. If we are prepared to introduce reforms in Turkey at any cost, then by all means shout "*Delenda est regimen.*" But is England so prepared? Since the thorough armament of the Dardanelles under German supervision in 1885, and the recent inspection of the Straits fortification by Russian officers, it may be doubted if any naval commander would care to run the gauntlet. Hence England must instruct her ambassador in Turkey to study the Oriental mind, and to remain in constant communication with the Turkish Government, just as the German, Russian, and French representatives do. Looking at matters dispassionately, can we wonder that British influence languishes somewhat and that Russia is all-powerful?

The Daily Telegraph, London, relates that Greece is highly incensed at the possibility of foreign administration of her finances, which, as Premier Ralli puts it, "is entirely uncalled for and a violation of the liberties of a sovereign people." But the *Vossische Zeitung*, Berlin, which has all along taken the part of Greece, believes that the Greeks will have to swallow the pill, "as even a free people may not borrow other people's money without returning it."

Parallel with the peace negotiations runs the regulation of Cretan affairs. The Cretan Christians have signified their willingness to accept autonomy. The Mohammedans object, but will be satisfied if their life and property are protected. The *Vossische* is certain that Greece will not be permitted to exercise any influence in Crete. It says:

"The world regarded Greece as a fit medium for the pacification of Crete, but she is neither morally nor in a military way able to occupy the place she claims so noisily. The sooner people in

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Athens understand this, the better it will be for them and the island. Greece must cease to oppose the powers in the work they have undertaken. Her opposition can not bear good results, for tho she may not be willing to admit the fact to herself, the rest of the world is well aware of the hollowness of her pretensions."

The following has been agreed upon among the powers as a basis for regulating the affairs of Crete:

The governor, a Christian, must be acceptable to the Sultan. He shall have the right of veto, he will grant pardons and amnesties, will appoint the officials, both Christian and Mohammedan, and command the troops.

The legislature will be formed of Christians and Mohammedans in proportion to their numerical strength. They will be elected every two years. Absolute majority is to rule this body.

The finances of Crete will be administered by her own Government. An annual tribute of $50,000 is to be paid to Turkey, to begin five years after the autonomy has been established, as the finances are in bad condition.

The armed force shall consist of police led by foreign officers. When the foreign contingents are to be withdrawn, a militia will be formed.

The language will be Greek, as this is spoken by Christians and Mohammedans alike. Official documents to be published in Turkish and Greek.

Crete is to have a flag of her own.

All thought of revolution seems to have vanished in Greece. The Ethnike Hetaira, the secret society which fostered the warlike spirit of the Greeks and was credited with the intention of deposing the king, is very much under a cloud. There is even some talk of arresting its leaders, and the papers assert that the funds collected by the society have been misappropriated, as, instead of the boasted army of 8,000 well-equipped troops it promised to furnish, only 3,000 were forthcoming, for the most part wretchedly armed and furnished. The *Proia*, Athens, nevertheless, ridicules the idea of an inquiry. "Who is to conduct it?" says the paper. "Nobody's hands are clean in Greece." The Italian revolutionaries, induced to go to Greece by the Ethnike Hetaira, have failed to rouse the populace. That this failure was not due to want of exertion on their part may be gathered from a detailed description of their doings in the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, from which we take the following:

"Discipline there was little or none among the Italian volunteers. The people soon learned to dread their approach, and when they returned from the war the inhabitants of the villages through which they had passed before shut their houses. The Garibaldians, however, were up to the occasion. They simply broke into the stores and took what they wanted. Their officers could not prevent the plundering. A detachment of Garibaldians, embarked on board the *Juno* for home, demanded to be landed in the Piræus. They wanted to introduce anarchy in Greece, they said, in their opinion the most sensible form of political life. A Greek war-ship escorted the steamer and prevented the Italians from making good their intention.

"De Felice, an Italian Socialist Parliamentarian well known for the trouble he gives his own Government, was summoned by Premier Ralli, who thanked him in the most polite terms for the assistance rendered by the Italian volunteers to Greece, and asked him to facilitate their return to Italy. Felice, who has never been in battle, swore he would take no orders from any one except the commanders of the Garibaldians. Ralli explained that the Greek Government could not well submit to the officers of the foreign legions. Felice declared that he did not give a d—n for the Greek Government, king and all. Ralli told the Italian that he must leave Greece within twenty-four hours. Felice rushed upon the balcony and yelled for his Garibaldians to come and take possession. Instead, the Greek Minister of Police appeared with his men, and Felice was arrested. Italy will receive her sons back under escort of Greek war-ships. But the Italian press will explain that this is done solely to honor their brave countrymen.

"We doubt that the Italian Government is very anxious to have these men return, altho, to judge from their behavior during the war, they can not be very dangerous in the field."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE ON THE NILE.

MR. HENRY NORMAN recently declared in *Cosmopolis* that England, undeterred by the jealousy of the powers, would advance her outposts on the Nile until the entire Sudan is hers. She seems to be about to resume warlike operations against the Mahdists. The *Independance Belge*, Brussels, relates that the officers of the Anglo-Egyptian army have received orders to return to their posts, and 16,000 camels are being assembled in the neighborhood of Omdurman. But England does not wish to risk a second defeat at the hands of the "Fuzzy-Wuzzies," and has made some advances to Menelik of Abyssinia, in the hope of obtaining his cooperation against the Dervishes. Whether Mr. Rennell Rodds's mission has been accomplished can not be ascertained. The British press is silent on this point. *The Times* only relates that Mr. Rennell Rodds and his companions "were received with the utmost cordiality," and that they "were very much admired." But as they stayed only a week at the King's residence, the *Vossische Zeitung* suggests that the mission failed, "as the English would let us know soon enough if they had accomplished anything." M. Lagarde, the French emissary, has been there before the English, and the *Figaro* relates that, besides important railroad concessions, France has obtained a treaty by which Menelik binds himself "to treat the enemies of France as his own." Two other French missions, one led by M. Bouvalot, the other by Prince Henry of Orleans, are on their way to Abyssinia. Prince Henry makes no secret of his enmity to England, as the following extracts from his letters to the *Figaro* will show:

"Among all those with whom I talked in Egypt the opinion was unanimous that the British Government, personified by Lord Cromer, has swept away all semblance of independence. They placed me in a position to see by what artifices England managed to convince the bondholders that Egyptian finances were in a flourishing condition, altho in reality England has abstracted, from 1883 to 1896, no less than 525,000,000 francs [$105,000,000] from Egypt. . . .

"Let Frenchmen reflect what powerful motives have caused England to violate her engagements respecting Egypt, and what she will gain in future if she is not hindered. The valley of the Nile will be confiscated and the English flag will float from Cairo to the Cape. From Port Said to India the voyager will sail in English waters. Assisted by the internal dissensions of France, or the dissensions of Europe, the leopard will stretch her claws over the richest half of the world. We will then have ceased to have power abroad. The way to prevent this danger is for the European powers to demand together that conventions be respected and the valley of the Nile be placed under international protection."

Whether Prince Henry's attempt to rouse France against England will be successful remains to be seen. That he will do much harm to England and at the same time advance materially the interests of France by his visit to King Menelik is doubted by a shrewd Italian, Dr. Traversi, who knows Eastern Africa well, and who expresses himself in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) to the following effect:

Now that the Negus Menelik has managed to rid himself of the Italian protectorate, he will be extremely careful not to enter into a similar agreement with any other power. He has had enough of European protectorates. He distrusts all whites now, and, as he is a very shrewd man, he is quite able to turn the rivalries of the European nations to his own account. As Italy has now given up the idea of political conquest, and confines herself to the exploitation of purely commercial advantages, she is likely to gain more by her intercourse with Ethiopia than the other powers. —*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE Bible is finding its way into all lands at a very rapid rate. Almost 2,000,000 copies were distributed last year by the American Bible Society. More were sent into China than in any previous year. Altogether 634,025 copies were sent to foreign lands.

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PROTECTION OF WORKINGMEN IN ENGLAND.

A BILL which provides that British workmen shall receive just compensation if hurt in the exercise of their duties, has been introduced in Parliament, and is now under discussion. Originally the proposed measure was regarded as a Unionist bait for workmen's votes. As time passes on, however, it has become evident that some law for the protection of the workers must be framed, now that the ball has been set going. The main feature of the bill, as proposed by Mr. Chamberlain, is that workmen should be compensated, whether or not the fault is either theirs or their fellow workers'. Unless this clause is inserted, thinks Mr. Chamberlain, employers will dispute claims, and the lawyers, not the workmen, will be benefited. The employers of large numbers of men, in England to a great extent the titled landowners, mine-owners, and railroad magnates, naturally object to such legislation, and the Tory press supports them. *The Newcastle Chronicle* calls the bill a "preposterous piece of quackery." *The Daily Graphic* says:

"There is in fact good reason to suspect that in certain quarters an attempt will be made to smother the bill with talk. That Radicals should take part in such a conspiracy would be intelligible, for the bill is one of the most popular measures that has been introduced during recent years by any government. But an examination of the amendment paper will show that the bulk of the opposition comes not from the Radicals but from a small group of Conservatives. Undoubtedly these gentlemen are within their right in trying to amend a bill which affects their pecuniary interests, only let them remember that it is not to defend their own interests exclusively that members are sent to Parliament."

Lord Londonderry has already declared that the bill is at variance with "the unalterable principles of good Tories," and that he and his friends in the House of Lords will alter and amend it so as to safeguard the rights of property. The stanch Conservative *St. James's Gazette* nevertheless warns against an attitude which may place powerful weapons in the hands of the Opposition. It says:

"The point thus raised, and raised candidly and straightforwardly, is, we need not say, of vital interest to the Government and the party, and its full discussion should not be shirked. . . . But suppose a number of peers, who are also coal-owners, take advantage of their strength to destroy a bill in which they are interested, not as constitutionalists, but as private men whose pockets will be affected, how will they and their House stand before the country? As a bulwark of the Constitution, the House of Lords occupies an impregnable position; that position it forfeits if it allows itself to become a mere superior committee of landowners, capitalists, or employers."

The Daily Telegraph thinks it is probable that the law would be defeated in its aims by contracts between the employers and the employed. It adds:

"But if we make the insurance absolutely compulsory and preclude the possibility of any workman contracting himself out of the provisions of the act, we are interfering to no small extent with that liberty to enter into what arrangements they please which we hold to belong by right to all free workmen."

The Socialist *Clarion* is inclined to doubt that workmen place a very high valuation on this right to become cripples without compensation. *The Advertiser* believes that the employers need not fear the expense, which they will probably escape in the long run. It says:

"The truth is that, with this as with any other charge imposed upon a business undertaking, it is impossible to say beforehand out of whose pocket the charge will be paid. It may come out of profits, or it may come out of wages, or by a rise in prices the general public may be made to pay for it. With three such varying elements nothing can be predicted with certainty. But in the present case on whomever the burden falls it will not be a very heavy one. If the whole charge fell upon wages, which is extremely improbable, a workman drawing £2 a week would have to provide 2*s.* 6*d.* a year, and in return for that sum would obtain the certainty of a comfortable pension for life in the case of serious accident, or a handsome donation to his widow in case of his death."

The *Nieuws van den Dag*, Amsterdam, thinks it strange that the sailors, whose calling is very dangerous, but who can not well unite to exercise political influence, have been numbered among the men who are exempted from the provisions of this bill. *The Echo*, London, hopes that the law of compensation will gradually affect all wage-earners. It says:

"If the bill passes it will represent a very real advance in the protection of the workmen, and will afford additional proof that tho a certain class of men who sit in 'the seats of the mighty' may be permitted to resist useful legislation for a time, they ultimately have to bend to a power superior to themselves—the power of the common people."

The "Insurance Manual," published by the Imperial German Insurance Office, proves that a nation need not experience great inconvenience in the establishment of a practical system of workmen's insurance. As the little book has been quoted extensively in England, we give some extracts from it as follows:

"The three branches of workmen's insurance—against illness, accident, and poverty in old age—supplement each other, and have begun to show results since 1885. The expenditure is increasing, but the fund evidently will be able to sustain the strain, even when the maximum is reached. In accordance with the terms of this compulsory insurance 25,061,620 persons have received compensation and assistance from 1885 to 1895; $310,990,000 has been paid out. The contributions from the employers were $242,435,000. The workmen's share was $221,991,000; thus the workmen received about $88,975,000 more than they had paid in. At present over $250,000 a day is spent on this insurance; 8,005,000 persons are insured against illness, the accident insurance affects 18,389,000, the old-age pension fund is contributed to by 11,585,000. Of the 52,000,000 inhabitants of Germany, 13,000,000 are classified as day-laborers under the terms of the law."

The little book closes with an earnest wish that "the blessing of this insurance may be extended to the workmen of other countries."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

FOREIGN NOTES.

A MODIFIED prohibition law is in force in many small places in Germany, where its regulations can be carried out better than in the large cities. Persons who neglect their families on account of drink, or who have been arrested repeatedly as "drunk and disorderly," are denied the privilege of purchasing liquor. Their names are printed on the "drunkards' list," published periodically by the police, copies of which are forwarded to the saloonkeepers, who are liable to heavy fines if they sell liquor to those mentioned on the list. The list must be placed on the wall, in view of every one, and reads something like this:

To Whom it May Concern:

It is not permitted to furnish spirituous liquor to the following persons:

Tailor J. Ruppig,
Cooper K. Schüffel,
Farrier E. Pichler,
Miss Timpel,
Laborer F. Gluckel.
The Governor.

A simple-minded woman recently thought the governor was included among the drunkards, because his name was on the list, and refused to serve him!

The Saturday Review, London, thinks it is unnecessary and imprudent to extend the custom to depreciate everything made outside of Great Britain to articles manufactured in America. Thus American bicycles should not be mentioned with contempt, even if the English manufacturer sells a wheel or two less. The paper adds: "Are cheap-priced English machines such wonders of constructional elegance and excellence as to be beyond reproach? Scarcely. For every-day use the "low-grade" Yankee article remains quite equal to the second-rate English, and price for price the Americans can beat us on our own ground by a pound or more. The "high-grade" machine from the other side is as good as anything we can turn out, and is nevertheless much cheaper than the same grade of English make."

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MISCELLANEOUS.

FASCINATION OF BULL-FIGHTING.

"THERE is nothing so genuine, so real, so exciting, so inspiring on the face of the earth" as bull-fighting, is the verdict of a man who fully realizes the cruelty and horrors of this Spanish sport. Joseph Pennell, the well-known English artist and writer, vividly describes in *Cosmopolis* (June) the bull-fights at Seville, where the crowning event of Holy Week is the first bull-fight of the season on Easter Sunday. The whole city makes an absolute holiday for sport's sake. Is the city disorderly; are the crowds riotous, vicious, dangerous? Mr. Pennell says:

"No sooner are the bulls brought from the farms to the tablada outside of Seville, or to the pen within the enclosure of the ring at Madrid, than the entire town occupies itself with the function. If one wishes to see Spanish character, this little field near Seville, where the bulls spend the afternoon before the fight, is the place of all others. It lies on the river bank, a mile or two beyond the palace of the Montpensiers, beyond the public park. There is a little house, a little inn, I think, close by. But the visit to Tablada is a real sporting event, and not an excuse for drink. In England, or in France, or in America, there would be the betting-ring, and representatives of all the gambling agencies in the country. Here is nothing of the sort. In France, I know, there would be a charming café, and little tables, and many drinks, more or less harmless. In England and America there would be a bar, and a struggling, fighting, drunken mob. But in this roughest town of uncivilized Spain there is a gathering which, while for color and brightness it is equal to a meet of the Coaching Club, or a return from Longchamps, for quietness and order and sobriety is unsurpassed. By way of dissipation, one may be able to get *aguardiente* in the little house; but the popular beverage is *agua fresca*."

Can a humane and civilized man take any interest in this sport? Mr. Pennell says:

"The cruelty may be decried or glossed over or denied. That is not my affair. My interest rather is in the fact that there is no sport, no sight, no spectacle to-day so beautiful, so pictorial, so enthralling as a bull-fight. Where else could ten thousand people be so carried away, so frenzied that they will rise as one man and shriek in exultation or in despair, as *torero*, horse, or bull gains or loses a point? Where else in the world is the same impression to be had of the beauty or the horror of blood—the black stream that stains the yellow sands, that turns purple in the blue shadow, that courses riotously, madly down the flanks of a white horse or a black bull? Where else can you smell the smell of it or make one of an audience that is stirred by the madness of it, their little fans all the time a prairie of flowers in the sunshine, their mantillas a wonderful arrangement of black and white in the shadows? Where else could you see, could you feel the vast multitude hold its breath while a man like Espartero, like Guerrita, like Fuentes, like Bombito, standing statue-like in the blinding sunlight straight in front of a raging bull, slowly with his sword takes the aim which means death to one or the other? No; there is not a sensation to compare with that which holds you enthralled at the supreme instant when the sword plunges and the bull charges. I have watched the man die and the bull die; I have watched both die. It is dreadful, it is awful. But it is pictorial—the most wonderful sight in the world."

Mr. Pennell's pen-picture of a bull-fight is so realistic and vivid that we reproduce it:

"The *picadores*, so well protected that they are absolutely helpless, in broad-brimmed hats, almost as stiff as wood, jackets so heavy with bullion embroidery and padding that they became like armor, brilliant yellow trousers and untanned boots, armed with lances that they are not really allowed to use, and mounted upon horses that can scarce hold them up, station themselves about the ring. . . . The *chulos* come in, wearing well-fitting, richly embroidered short jackets, tight knee-breeches, silk stockings, and little round Spanish hats. When one sees the *chulo* in the blood-stained, sun-scorched, sickle-shaped ring of Madrid or Seville, the focus of ten thousand eyes as he stands waving his cloak; when one sees the bull from away off put down his head, kick up the dust, paw the ground, scattering the earth in showers behind him, and charge the man standing there, always waving, one is fairly overwhelmed by a sensation that no sporting club, no cricket match, no game of polo can inspire. A few seconds only does the charge last, and the statuesque pose of the *chulo*, always, like Loie Fuller, waving his cloak. When the bull is within ten feet, then the *chulo*, with all the grace of the serpentine dancer, lets the cloak fall over the bull's head. Five feet more and the man would have been but a gory, grisly mass. Yet his grace, his courage, his cheek, and his dexterity have subdued the beast that should have annihilated him. What in Anglo-Saxon sport is there to equal this encounter in pluck and daring, in beauty and skill and elegance of movement?

"Then, the *banderilleros*. A tight-rope walker, Spanish or Japanese, may once in a while in all safety poise himself as gracefully, as lightly on his toes as the bull-fighter when he invites the bull, now furious and raging, to charge him. But nowhere on this earth save in the bull-ring shall you see such grace in the face of death, or daring so gaily and nimbly expressed, as when the *banderillero*, standing on tiptoe, challenges the bull, and then plants the two brilliant darts behind the horns which would have tossed him into eternity or the hospital, as the price of a moment's hesitation.

"Then that scene is over, and the last begins. And now of the president, the *espada*, with beautiful, passionate face upturned, and flinging his hat from him, asks permission to kill the bull. You know that, once the permission is granted—and it is never refused—the bull has got to die. But only after *picadores*, horse and man, have been thrown clean across the barrier, their brains dashed out, and the public laughing at them for allowing it, only after *chulos* and *banderilleros* have been dragged bleeding from the ring, does it dawn upon you that, tho the bull must die, there is a chance that the *espada* may die too. If you have been present, as I have, when the greatest *torero* in Spain has been killed by the bull, and his successor in the arena torn and tossed, and others who would follow in his steps gashed and broken, can you understand that here indeed is a sport of life and death such as does not exist in our time out of Spain. . . .

"Beforehand, you may think only of the horror of the moment when man or horse is tossed in the air right before your eyes. But in the bull-ring you are conscious only of what an absolutely overpowering and dramatic picture the whole fight presents. Not until you have heard ten thousand people shriek with one voice in delight, or in fear, do you realize the possibilities of emotion."

A Wondrous Chinese Geography.—Dr. Lockhart, a member of the Medical Academy of London, has received as a gift for the library of the association a series of volumes relating to China, sent him by an English missionary, Rev. C. C. Spaham, of Hankow. Among these volumes, says the *Chronique Universelle*, he has discovered a Chinese geography extremely curious and valuable, the more so as it can not be found at the present time in the country of its origin. This book has for its title "Sha-Hai-Sing" (mountains and seas). The author gives a strange description of the people living in other parts of the globe. He says they are divided into four distinct classes. The first includes men possessing three faces; the second consists exclusively of dwarfs; the third of hybrids, partly men, partly fish; the last division, the most curious of all, of men who have no neck. The head is placed directly on the trunk, the face turned on the upper side. When they wish to travel they force down their mouth a stick which, without encountering any obstacle, passes entirely through them, and in this way their servants carry them on their backs, taking them from place to place like living palanquins. Father Spaham affirms that many times numbers of Chinese scholars have recited to him this strange geography learned by them from their teachers.

THE history of Bible publishing in America discloses the fact that Philadelphia has played a most important part in this branch of book-making. The first Hebrew Bible published in this country was printed by William Fry of Philadelphia in 1814. This was the second American book in Hebrew characters, the press of Harvard College having issued in 1809 an addition of the Psalms. The Sauer Bible, of which reprints are still in existence, was printed in Germantown in 1743, and the first Douay Bible reprinted in America was published in Philadelphia in 1790.

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BUSINESS SITUATION.

The actual amount of trade improvement is differently estimated by the trade journals, but the existence of increasing confidence is not denied. The speculative market has advanced and broadened. Bank clearings decrease 7 per cent. from the previous week, but gain 8 per cent. over a year ago. Business failures number about the same as in 1896.

The Actual State of Trade.—"The persistent misrepresentation of the actual state of trade throughout the country during the past month, in an apparent endeavor to make the prospective improvement in business appear to be its present condition, demands an examination as to the facts, and *Bradstreet's* presents condensed results of interviews with representative manufacturers and merchants at more than fifty important commercial and industrial centers east of the Rocky Mountains. The demand, except in a few lines, is less pronounced than it was two months ago. There is no material increase in the volume distributed compared with a year ago, and prices for many staples are lower. But there has been an improvement compared with the situation prior to the Presidential election of 1896 and as contrasted with last January. Many of the larger merchants and manufacturers characterize the business record for the first half of 1897 as a disappointment in contrast with anticipations in December, 1896. On the other hand, confidence is widespread in a revival of demand this fall. Of the three great manufacturing industries, iron and steel, cottons, and woolens, the first shows relatively most improvement and woolens next, altho tariff delays have taken the edge off demand in that line and permitted importers to stock up with nearly two years' supplies. Cotton goods still suffer from cut prices, excessive competition, and heavy production. There is a better demand for silks, millinery, and confectionery, which, aside from the prosperity of the bicycle industry, constitute exceptions. Higher prices for leading cereals, for meats and Havana tobacco, are noteworthy, and reflect, respectively, unusually small supplies of wheat, the strength of the control of the meat supply and existing conditions in Cuba. . . .

"The movement of prices of staples gives no evidence of increased firmness this week. Indian corn is lower, as are pork, coffee, and petroleum. Manufacturers' prices of men's shoes are weaker, and quotations for iron ore have been cut, which weakens the nominally unchanged price for Bessemer pig iron. Quotations for wheat, flour, sugar, cotton, print cloths, steel billets, hides, coal, and lumber are unchanged, while those for wool, wheat, oats, and lard are higher."—*Bradstreet's, June 26.*

Continued Improvement.—"There is no step backward in business, altho the season of midsummer quiet is near. Improvement continues, gradual and prudently cautious as before, altho in many branches evident where no signs of it appeared a few weeks ago. Business men of the highest standing in all parts of the country, having gradually perceived that the tide has begun to rise, are regulating their contracts and investments and their plans for the future with a confidence quite unknown to them a short time ago. Great changes before the adjournment of Congress are hardly to be expected, but removal of uncertainty is with reason expected to bring into operation buying forces which have been restricted for months. Meanwhile it is encouraging that crop prospects still grow brighter, that the industries meet a gradually increasing demand for products, that labor questions which had a threatening aspect have been adjusted, and that the Treasury maintains its ample strength notwithstanding some exports of gold brought about by premiums paid on behalf of foreign governments. The stock market has not been the barometer of anything for some years, unless of Wall Street apprehension. But its sustained advance appears to mean something, because it is now supported, for the first time in several years, by a genuine public demand. . . .

"The main factor at this time is the steadily brightening prospect for crops. Harvesting of wheat has already begun in some winter wheat States, with surprisingly good results in the central region and California, so that 800,000 tons is now called the minimum from the latter State, and statisticians of repute calculate on 60,000,000 bushels winter wheat beyond the government estimate. Spring wheat is doing remarkably well with a practically unknown increase of acreage. The price has advanced 1½ cents during the week, with a decrease of 1,200,000 bushels in Western receipts, and Atlantic exports of only 1,445,947 bushels, flour included, against 1,713,961 last year; but it is just the season when figures have no value except as proving how erroneous were estimates of the crop of 1896. Cotton was lifted an eighth without reason, and has fallen back as much, because everything points to a larger crop than has been commonly expected. . . .

"A most encouraging feature is the large demand for commercial loans, of nine large banks one having loaned only on such paper, five others from 55 to 80 per cent. of their loans, and the rest at least half. Some report the best demand of that character for many years, much of it from Eastern textile mills. Exchange is strengthened for the time by interest payments, more concerns being able to pay than in recent years. The Southern demand for small notes to move crops has now begun."—*Dun's Review, June 26.*

Canadian Trade.—"Toronto merchants report seasonable goods moving freely, with large shipments of wool to the United States to anticipate a higher duty. The Dominion Government is reported likely to impose export duties on saw logs, pulp wood, and lead and nickel ore if it finds the American tariff unfavorable to those interests. The volume of business at Montreal is reduced through interest in the jubilee celebration at London. Bank clearings at Winnipeg, Hamilton, Toronto, Montreal, and Halifax amount to $16,989,000, against $23,696,000 last week and $17,330,000 in the week a year ago. Only 17 business failures are reported from the Canadian Dominion this week, against 34 last week, 19 in the week a year ago, and 28 two years ago. [*Dun's Review:* 24 to 24 last year]."—*Bradstreet's, June 26.*

A Favorite Route for Tourists.

Tourists and travellers from New York, Boston or Portland to the Historic and Picturesque City of Quebec, to the famous Fishing resorts on the Lower St. Lawrence and Saguenay Rivers or Lake St. John, would do well to travel *via* the Quebec Central Railway. This is the only line running through Pullman Palace Cars from Springfield to Quebec, Boston to Quebec, and Portland to Quebec without change and is the favorite Tourist route.

A Remedy For Rheumatism.

A PHYSICIAN WRITES:

Dear Sirs:—An old friend of mine handed me a couple of small vials of your Tartarlithine some time ago and I tried it on myself, having suffered from Rheumatism for several years. I assure you I was so pleased with its effects that I procured a full size bottle, and since taking it I have been entirely free from Rheumatism during the past year. I also observed that it is not surpassed by any other preparation as a PROMPT and EFFICIENT diuretic; besides it is pleasant to administer. Please send me a few bottles for use among my patients afflicted with Rheumatism.

Pamphlet on the treatment of Rheumatism by Tartarlithine sent free by

McKESSON & ROBBINS,

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Sole Agents for

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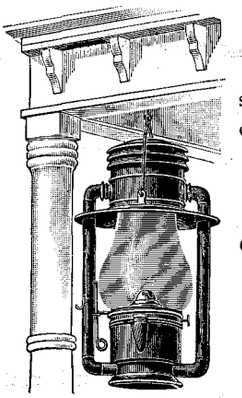

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Current Events.

Monday, June 21.

The Senate disposes of fifty-six pages of tariff schedules including the free list. . . . The House passes an appropriation for the Brooklyn navy-yard. . . . Broker A. L. Seymour is acquitted of contempt of a Senate committee by Judge Bradley, Washington. . . . The tailors' strike in New York is ended by concessions from contractors. . . . The semi-centenary of St. Francis Xavier (Jesuit) College, New York, is celebrated. . . . Christian K. Ross, father of Charlie Ross, abducted July 1, 1874, and never found, dies in Philadelphia, aged seventy-four.

The Queen proceeds in state from Windsor to Buckingham Palace, London; at Buckingham Palace the Queen receives the foreign ambassadors and Envoys; the letter of President McKinley is delivered by Special Ambassador Reid; a list of jubilee honors is announced. . . . The Mexican town of Tehuantepec is destroyed by an earthquake.

Tuesday, June 22.

The Senate (alone in session) agrees on duties of ten and twelve cents on first and second class wools; Republican differences are debated. . . . Senator Hanna's forces control the Republican state convention at Toledo, Ohio. . . . The Ohio Valley Bimetallic League meets in Cincinnati. . . . Broker J. W Macartney is acquitted of contempt charges by Judge Bradley, Washington. . . . The capture of the suspected filibuster *Dauntless* on Monday is reported at the State Department.

The Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria is celebrated with great pomp and enthusiasm in London and elsewhere throughout the British Empire. . . . Spanish victories are reported in Cuba. . . . The Chilian Cabinet resigns owing to disagreements with Congress.

Wednesday, June 23.

The Senate completes raw wool paragraphs of the tariff schedule, adopting the finance committee's scale; four cents on third class below ten cents per pound, seven cents above ten cents per pound. . . . The Senate committee on foreign relations considers Japan's protest against the Hawaiian annexation treaty. . . . Ohio Republicans renominate Governor Bushnell and indorse Senator Hanna for reelection. . . . Iowa Populists, Free-Silver Democrats, and Republicans nominate a fusion state ticket. . . . General John B. Gordon is reelected commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans at Nashville. . . . James T. Kilbreth, collector of the port of New York, dies. . . . Yale Freshmen win a boat race at Poughkeepsie in which all crews break the record.

The Queen receives both houses of Parliament at Buckingham Palace, and the lord mayors and provosts of the kingdom; Her Majesty returns to Windsor, receiving loyal demonstrations on the way; at night a gala performance of opera is held in Covent Garden Opera House. . . . The women's international Chess tournament begins in London.

Thursday, June 24.

The Senate adopts finance committee rates on manufactured woolens. . . . The House announces the death of Representative E. D. Cooke, of Illinois, and adjourns to Monday. . . . The United States Court of Claims decides against the award against Mexico in the La Abra case. . . . The Kentucky court of appeals upholds the constitutionality of the state bond issue. . . . The Music Teachers' National Association meets in New York.

About three hundred thousand poor people in London enjoyed a jubilee dinner given by the Princess of Wales. . . . A treaty for the provisional union of the Central American republics is signed. . . . It is reported in Brussels that Baron Dhanis and his entire expedition to the headwaters of the Nile have been massacred.

Friday, June 25.

The Senate passes the wool, silk, and tobacco schedules. . . . The President nominates Irving B. Dudley, of California, Minister to Peru. . . . The United States circuit court at St. Paul decides in favor of a grant of valuable land to the Duluth and Iron Range Railroad Company. . . . Consolidation of St. Louis street railways is predicted. . . . The world's student congress opens at Northfield, Mass. . . . Prof. Charles C. Wright dies in Baltimore. . . . Cornell University's boat crew wins at Poughkeepsie; Yale second, Harvard third.

Jubilee festivities include a celebration by schoolchildren at Windsor.

Saturday, June 26.

The Senate debate on tariff is interrupted by the illness of Mr. Pettigrew, South Dakota, who suffers a paralytic stroke while speaking. . . . A race riot in Key West, Fla., is quelled by shooting a negro rioter. . . . Ex-State Treasurer Bartley, of Nebraska, convicted of embezzlement, is sentenced at Omaha to twenty years in the penitentiary and to pay a fine of $300,000.

The jubilee festivities in England close with a naval review at Spithead. . . . Unconfirmed reports circulate in Havana that General Maximo Gomez, the insurgent commander-in-chief, is killed or wounded.

Sunday, June 27.

The admissions to the Nashville Exposition for the week exceed 100,000. . . . Secretary of State Sherman gives out an interview on political topics.

President Errazuriz of Chili choses a new cabinet. . . . A fresh outbreak of fighting between Mussulmans and Christians takes place in Crete, with many killed on both sides. . . . American marines are landed in Hawaii on the strength of a rumor that the Japanese intended to seize the custom-house.

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PERSONALS.

THE LATE FATHER KNEIPP.—"The death of Father Kneipp, once before reported, has now actually occurred, at Woerishofen in Suabia, Germany, Thursday morning (June 16). This excellent and simple-natured priest revived the water-cure, with new methods of application, and became very famous throughout Europe some years ago, while lately his ideas have found some advocates and followere in this country. Sebastian Kneipp was born May 17, 1821, in Stefansried, Bavaria, and so had passed his seventy-sixth anniversary. A sickly youth, with pulmonary weakness, his work as a weaver did not make him stronger. After he came of age he became a priest and also studied medicine, and a few years later began the experiments on himself which he formed into a system of treatment, and having proved its value in his own case, he began to treat his neighbors, and for many years without pay he healed the people. So great became the gatherings of patients from far and near that the Kneippverein was established, supported by subscriptions to continue and enlarge the work. The Pope heard of the Bavarian priest's wonderful cures, and sent for him to come to Rome, and treat him for his dyspeptic troubles, and his entire success in relieving Leo XIII. at that prelate's great age brought an immense access of popularity to the Kneipp-verein, which now cares for 1,200 patients with 12 resident physicians. The essential elements of the treatment are sunshine, fresh air, and cold water. When it was begun in this country, about two years ago, the public attention was drawn to it by the early morning barefoot promenade of the Kneippians in the dew or even in the snow, which was to be observed in Central Park, New York, for some time before there was a sanitarium established in New Jersey, with grounds large enough to allow of this without drawing outside observers. But this was but one feature; there is a regular system of baths, of several kinds; the use is prescribed of clothing which lets air and light through; the restriction of diet, meat being commonly and alcohol in any form absolutely forbidden. This treatment is applied to almost every form of disease, but those of a nervous origin are the most satisfactorily helped. Father Kneipp was attacked early in May with inflammation of the lungs, and died of quick consumption."—*The Republican, Springfield.*

BARNEY BARNATO'S CAREER.—"Barney Barnato," popularly dubbed the richest man in the world, committed suicide last month on the way from Cape Town to Southampton. He threw himself overboard a steamer, the coroner's jury said, while insane. The body was recovered and buried in a Jewish cemetery in England. Press accounts justly estimate him as in many respects the most remarkable speculator of the century. *His career is thus described:*

Of all the Englishmen who have taken part in the development of South Africa, two only have secured a world-wide reputation. These have been Cecil Rhodes and Barnett Isaacs, more often and less respectfully styled "Barney Barnato." This, however, was an assumed name, a sort of stage name, for he began his life in South Africa by exhibiting a trick donkey about twenty-five years ago. He was then about twenty years of age. Barnato was an English Jew, and illustrated in an extraordinary way the financial genius of his race. Up to the point when his fortunes began to decline, he made money by leaps and bounds; and in 1895, when his good fortune was at its zenith, it was estimated that he controlled interests worth in the neighborhood of £100,000,000. It was the fashion to call him the richest man in the world; at that time he was virtually the king of the London money market.

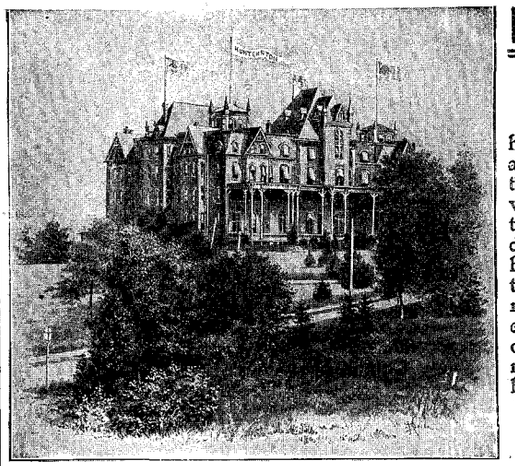
In the autumn of 1895, when the boom in "Kafirs," the shares of the comparatively new gold mines of the Transvaal, South Africa, was at its height, every man, woman, and child in London, with money to invest, invested it in "Kafirs." The craze was the last of those financial fevers which periodically attack conservative England; the "South Sea bubble" being the first. For months it was the controlling passion in London; and it was scarcely less rampant in Paris and Berlin. The shares went to unheard-of figures, and fortunes were made in a day. The center of this tremendous financial outburst was Barney Barnato; and he was conservatively estimated at that time as worth between $100,000,000 and $150,000,000. Among his assets was a bank, originally capitalized at $12,500,000. In a very few months its capital stock rose in value to $45,000,000.

Barnato was born in London. But little is known as to his early life, except that he received his instruction from a private tutor, instead of attending the public schools. He was a younger son and at the age of twenty went to South Africa, then a much more savage territory than it is now and but scantily populated by Englishmen or persons of English descent. The Kimberley diamond mints were just beginning to be productive. With his few pounds of capital he began dealing in diamonds in a small way. He was clever and pushing.

Everything he touched he made successful. In five years he had earned enough in the retail sale of diamonds to buy shares in the mines from which his merchandise had come. Before another five years had elapsed his holdings at Kimberley had become very large; and when the Transvaal gold-fields were discovered he had profits to invest in them. In 1886 Barney Barnato was a definite money power in South Africa and began to be spoken of as the rival of Cecil Rhodes. Unlike in temperament and even more unlike in personal ambition, the two men started in to be hot opponents. But in 1888 they reached the conclusion that their respective interests would be best promoted by combining forces; and the De Beers consolidated mines were the result, one of the most valuable pieces of property of the kind in the world.

About a month ago before his death it was rumored that Barnato's health was suffering from the severe tension of nervousness, and in the latter part of May it was reported from Cape Town that he was suffering from nervous prostration and had been placed under restraint. This was subsequently denied by his London representative, who said that Barnato was suffering from a slight attack of Cape fever, likely to prove serious.

The Chautauqua Assembly has recently issued a thirty-two page pamphlet giving full and detailed information in regard to the courses offered in the various Schools and a handsome prospectus in the form of the advanced number of "The Chautauqua Assembly Herald," containing the daily program for the season and information in regard to the various clubs and classes organized during the summer. These will be sent upon application to the Secretary, Mr. W. A. Duncan, Chautauqua, N. Y.



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CHESS.

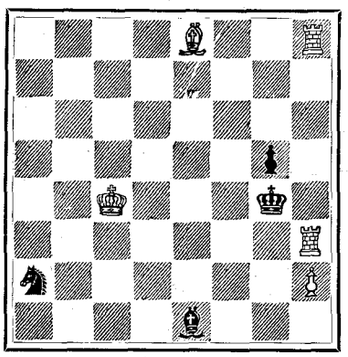
[All communications for this Department should be addressed: "Chess Editor, LITERARY DIGEST."]

Problem 209.

BY FR. DUBBE.

Black—Four Pieces.

K on K Kt 5; B on K 8; Kt on Q R 7; P on K Kt 4.



White—Five Pieces.

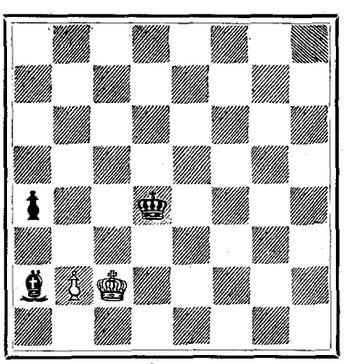
K on Q B 4; B on K 8; Rs on K R 3 and 8; P on K R 2.

White mates in three moves.

Problem 210.

The following position actually occurred in a game between J. Metger and Louis Paulsen at the Chess-Congress in Nuremberg in 1884. The game was declared a draw; but Black has a win.

Black—Louis Paulsen—Three Pieces.



White—Herr J. Metger—Two Pieces.

Black to play and win.

Solution of Problems.

PROBLEM-SOLVING TOURNEY.

Gen. Ferguson's Solution.

(Commended by Dr. Dalton.)

No. 201.

(*a*) 1. B—Q B 6 / B x Q — 2. RxP (KR3), ch / K—K Kt 5, must — 3. BxP (Q2) !!! mate

(*b*) 1. ..... / P x B — 2. R x B (K 3) / P x P — 3. Q—K B 5! mate

(*c*) 2. ..... / P—K Kt 3 — 3. RxP (K R3), mate

(*d*) 2. ..... / Any except P x P — 3. R x P, mate

"I might give six or seven variations, but *b*, *c*, and *d* sufficiently illustrate the position."

(*e*) 1. ..... / R x R — 2. R x B (K 3) / P x R — 3. B—K 8! mate

"This variation shows another important reason for having White B in supporting distance of R."

(*f*) 1. ..... / P x P — 2. RxP(Q4), ch / B x R — 3. Q—K B 5! mate

"A lively variation in which White mates with one piece."

(*g*) 2. ..... / B—K B 4 — 3. QxB (K B4), mate

"Substantially the same as former variation."

(*h*) 1. ..... / P—K Kt 5 — 2. QxP (KR5)! ch / K x Q must — 3. RxB(KR7)!!! mate

"This is the most artistic and dramatic situation in the problem."

(*i*) 1. ..... / P—Q 5 — 2. R x B (K 3) / P—K Kt 5 — 3. R—K 5 or R x P (K R 3) mate

(*j*) 2. ..... / P x P — 3. K—K B 5, mate

Gen. Ferguson in writing to Dr. Dalton concerning this problem said: "It is a beautiful work, and cost me several hours of close study. At first I could see no use for the White B at Q R 8, but when I discovered that, with Black B at K 3 out of the way, White R could give mate by taking P at K R 3, it was evident that he was to be used to accomplish that end. Even then it was a difficult task to find how to use him."

No. 203.

(*a*) 1. P—K Kt 3 / R x P — 2. B—Q 4 ch / K x B — 3. Q—Q R 7, mate

(*b*) 2. ..... / K x P — 3. Q—K B 5, mate

(*c*) 1. ..... / Q x P — 2. B—Q 4 ch / K x B — 3. Q—Q R 7, mate

(*d*) 2. ..... / K x P — 3. Q—K B 5, mate

(*e*) 1. ..... / R x Q — 2. Kt-K B5 ch / K-K5, must — 3. B—Q 3, mate

(*f*) 1. ..... / R—K Kt 3 — 2. Kt-K B5 ch / K-K5, must — 3. B—Q 3, mate

(*g*) 1. ..... / R—K 5 — 2. QxR (K5)! ch / PxQ must — 3. Kt-Q B 4!!! mate

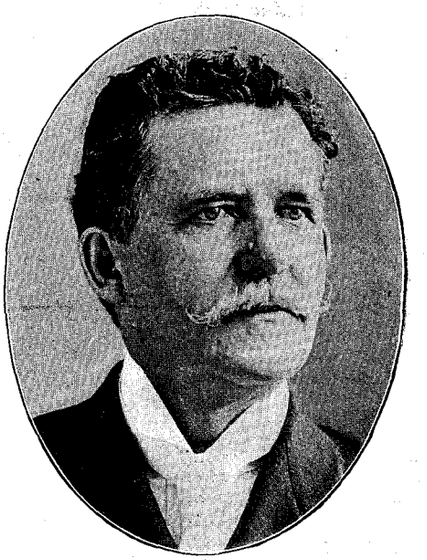
(*h*) 1. ..... / Q x B or B—Q R 3 — 2 and 3 the same as *a* and *c*.

Correct solution of both problems received from Gen. F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; H. J. Hutson, W. R. Pratt, Tabor, Ia.; Dr. H. W. Fannin, Hackett, Ark.; M. A. S., Easton, Pa.; M. W. H., University of Virginia; the Rev. W. F. Furman, Providence, R. I.; M. Doemann, Chicago; W. S. Morton, Ferguson's Wharf, Va.; Dr. S. W. Close, Gouverneur, N. J.; R. J. Moore, Riverton, Ala.; L. Hirsch, Brooklyn; Dr. G. A. Humpert, St. Louis; S. Spencer, St. Louis; Dr. W. S. Frick, Philadelphia; S. L. Meyers, Chicago; M. F. Winchester, Dannebrog, Neb.; J. S. Smith, Linneus, Mo.; F. H. Johnston, Elizabeth City, N. C.; E. A. More, Jr., Denver; Otto Würzburg, Grand Rapids, Mich.; A. E. Scott, St. Louis; J. E. Hall, St. Louis; Alf. Mason, St. Louis; G. F. Damon, Chicago; N. Hald, Dannebrog, Neb.; M. P. Quintaña, Albany; Victor Abraham, Cincinnati; J. Weiss, New Orleans; R. D. Biedemann, Kendallville, Ind.; Julia Dalton, New Orleans; Alex. Henderson, New Orleans.

Dr. Dalton writes: "The above-named contestants all sent very good solution of both problems. There were eighty-three persons who tried these problems, and while a number succeeded in solving only one problem, only seven or eight failed in both problems. The lovers of Chess are increasing rapidly in numbers. Long live Caissa!!"

Dr. Dalton awards the prize, a set of Chess-men, for the best all-round solution, to Gen. F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.

The Doctor says: "It was difficult to decide between Gen. Ferguson, R. J. Moore, F. H. Johnston, Dr. Fannin, and Dr. Close. In bestowing the prize upon Gen. Ferguson, I extend to him my hearty congratulations. His solution of both problems, and fine criticism thereon, were faultless."



W. R. I. DALTON, M.D., NEW YORK CITY.

Women Chess-Players.

The International Chess-Congress for women which began on June 23 in the Masonic Hall of the Hotel Cecil, London, is the first of its kind in the history of Chess. Twenty women, representing nine different countries, and selected from a long list of applicants, are contesting for international honors and prizes aggregating $1,110. The winner of the most brilliant game will receive a special prize of $100 offered by Baron Albert de Rothschild.

There are six prizes: First, $300, presented by Sir George Newnes; second, $250, raised in the United States by Harry N. Pillsbury; third, $200; fourth, $150; fifth, $100; sixth, $75.

The list of accepted players is:

United States—Mrs. Harriet Worrall, of Brooklyn.

Canada—Mrs. Stevenson.

France—Mme. De la Vigne.

Germany—Frau Muller-Hartung and Frau Hertzsch.

Italy—Signorina Fagan.

Belgium—Mme. Marie Bonnefin.

England—Lady Thomas, Miss Rudge, Miss Field, Miss Fox, Miss Watson, Miss Eschwege, Mrs. Sidney, Miss Thorold, and Miss Gooding.

Ireland—Miss Finn and Mrs. Barry.

Scotland—Miss Forbes-Sharpe.

Reserved—Miss Hooke, Mrs Vivian, Mrs. Redpath, and Mrs. Banting, all of England.

Referee—Harry N. Pillsbury, of Brooklyn.

Following is the standing of the players at the time of going to press:

Players.	*Won.*	*Lost.*	*Players.*	*Won.*	*Lost.*
*Barry	4	3	Hooke	3	5
*Bonnefin.	4	3	*Muller-Hartung.	½	5½
Eschwege	4	4	*Rudge	7	0
*Fagan	6	1	Stevenson	1	7
*Field	4½	2½	*Sidney	5	2
*Finn	3½	3½	**Thomas	2	4
Forbes-Sharpe.	2½	5½	Thorold	4½	3½
**Fox	4	2	*De la Vigne	1	6
Gooding	6	2	Watson	4½	3½
*Hertzsch	2	5	**Worrall	4	2

*Games left unfinished.

Chess-Nuts.

The American Chess-Magazine, in its first number, publishes 22 problems, and announces the inauguration of a continuous problem-solving tournament open to yearly subscribers only. A running score will be kept for each competitor, who will be credited for each correct solution as follows: 4 points for 5-movers; 3 points for 4-movers; 2 points for 3-movers, and 1 point for 2-movers. Every competitor who gets a score of 250 points to his credit will be awarded a handsome prize.

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